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ABSTRACT

This first serial issue addresses topics and issues impacting educational services for culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) learners. The issue contains three research-into-practice articles, an interview section called "In the Oral Tradition," and three teacher-generated articles which delineate learner-enhancing practices for special educators. Articles include: "Learning and Cultural Diversities in General and Special Education Classes: Frameworks for Success" (Deborah L. Voltz); "Issues in the Implementation of Innovative Instructional Strategies" (Robert Rueda and others); "Controllable Factors in Recruitment of Minority and Nonminority Individuals for Doctoral Study in Special Education" (Rosalie S. Boone and Kathy L. Ruhl); "Issues Regarding the Education of African American Exceptional Learners" (Helen Bessent Byrd); "Using Bilingual Literature with Students Who Have Severe Disabilities" (Candace Clark and Katie St. John); "Through Navajo Eyes: Curriculum Guidelines from a Teacher's Perspective" (Lucretia Holiday and others); and "Using Instructional Games for Cultural Exploration: Exploring African Cultures" (Marcella Bell). Individual articles contain references. (DB)

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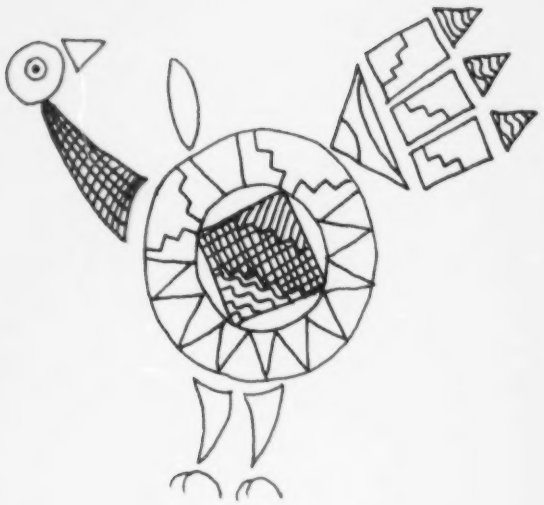

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A PUBLICATION OF THE DIVISION FOR CULTURALLY AND LINGUISTICALLY DIVERSE EXCEPTIONAL LEARNERS

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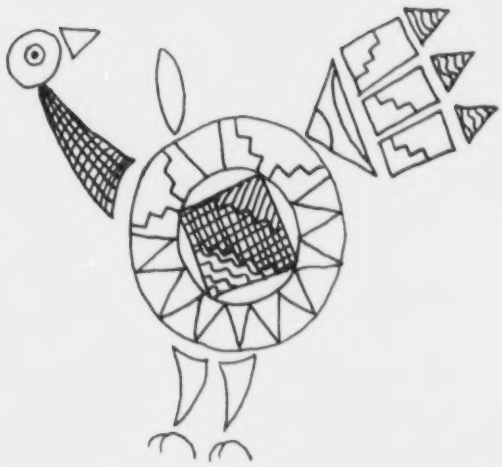
MULTIPLE VOICES

FOR ETHNICALLY DIVERSE EXCEPTIONAL LEARNERS

1995

BRIDGIE ALEXIS FORD
EDITOR



A PUBLICATION OF THE
DIVISION FOR CULTURALLY AND
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EXCEPTIONAL LEARNERS

PUBLISHED BY THE COUNCIL FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

Cover artwork by Eldred Pacheco, a Pueblo Native American student enrolled in a classroom for learners with gifts and/or talents.

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Preview

BRIDGIE ALEXIS FORD
Editor, *Multiple Voices*

The delivery of comprehensive, meaningful, educational and related services to individuals with disabilities, gifts, and/or talents requires the consultative and collaborative energies of multiple persons with multiple voices. These include professionals, individuals with exceptionalities, family members, significant community resources, and others concerned with the well-being of exceptional children and youth. The differential forms of treatment given to individuals from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds both historically and currently intensify the need for the establishment and maintenance of productive, inclusive networks. To connect these networks, the Division for Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Exceptional Learners (DDEL) has started *Multiple Voices for Ethnically Diverse Exceptional Learners*, of which this publication is the first issue. The networks generate fruitful dividends because of their multiple voices, as exemplified by the content and varied formats of the articles.

Despite legislation and education reform movements designed to promote equity in access to free, appropriate, and high-quality educational services, learners from CLD backgrounds continue to be overrepresented in special education programs and underrepresented in gifted/talented programs. Additionally, CLD parents and other significant family members continue to be ignored in all aspects of the educational decision-making process concerning their children.

As the nation's public schools population becomes more culturally and linguistically diverse, both general and special education must collectively and seriously confront the multitude of issues and challenges surrounding excellence in the delivery of educational services for all exceptional children and youth. Pertinent to exceptional students and their parents from CLD backgrounds are issues of adequate preparation of professionals and paraprofessionals, the design and implementation of inclusive, equity-oriented educational policies and practices, and the recruitment of professionals and paraprofessionals from CLD backgrounds. These critical issues corroborate the primary purpose of DDEL: to provide a forum for understanding and addressing the needs of exceptional learners from diverse ethnic, linguistic, and cultural heritages.

In 1994 DDEL published its first major monograph, *Addressing Cultural and Linguistic Diversity in Special Education: Issues and Trends*, under the editorial leadership of Shernaz Garcia. Its goal was to address a topic of concern to professionals serving multicultural populations in special education. DDEL's present initiative, *Multiple Voices*, is a refereed publication intended to further the presentation of a broad spectrum of scholarly articles pertaining to the varied topics and issues impacting appropriate educational services for CLD learners. To this end, each issue of *Multiple Voices* will contain information from different cultural perspectives pertaining to legislation and institutional policies; educational models and reform movements; assessment, curriculum content, and instructional practices; or research issues that inhibit or promote effective services to exceptional learners and their families from CLD backgrounds. To capture the essence of these perspectives, a multiplicity of formats has been used.

In this issue, the research-into-practice articles present effective, innovative instructional practices within both general and special education environments and factors regarding the recruitment of CLD graduate students into teacher education programs. The "In the Oral Tradition" section contains an interview of three prominent African American special educators who voice their views on critical issues.

Finally, the teacher-generated articles delineate learner-enhancing practices for special educators working with students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds—Native Americans, Hispanic Americans, and African Americans. Congruent with DDEL's emphasis on the inclusion of multiple voices, the artwork on the cover was produced by a student of Hispanic American background enrolled in a gifted program. We hope that readers will find these efforts interesting and enlightening.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

On behalf of DDEL, I congratulate the authors of the articles in this issue of *Multiple Voices* and invite submission of manuscripts for the forthcoming issues. My special thanks go to the associate editors and Editorial Board members for their painstaking commitment to excellence. In addition, I thank DDEL's Executive Board members and entire membership for their unflinching support in this venture. Together, we are making a difference!

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MULTIPLE VOICES MANUSCRIPT GUIDELINES

Manuscripts focusing on effective classroom/postsecondary practices, assessment, family/community empowerment techniques, research, material or test reviews, recruitment, and other issues pertaining to culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional populations are welcomed. Teachers are especially encouraged to submit work about proven practices for students with disabilities and/or those with gifts and talents. Only manuscripts not previously published and not being considered for publication may be submitted. Receipt of manuscript will be acknowledged and the manuscript will undergo a blind peer review. The author(s) must submit four copies to: Dr. Bridgie Alexis Ford, Editor, Department of Counseling and Special Education, The University of Akron, Akron, OH 44325-5007, (216) 972-6734. The manuscript must conform to APA style (4th ed.) and not exceed 20 pages.

Learning and Cultural Diversities in General and Special Education Classes: Frameworks for Success

DEBORAH L. VOLTZ
University of Louisville

Many educational, demographic, and societal trends have converged to produce an increasing degree of diversity in today's general education classrooms. Student diversity, when conceptualized in an educational context, includes not only students from diverse cultural backgrounds, but also those who have other educationally relevant differences. Cushner, McClelland, and Safford (1992) described the concept of diversity when they wrote:

> Our definition of diversity, at least for classroom and school purposes, encompasses not only those individuals whose ethnic heritage originates in another country, but also those among us who may have special educational and other needs (the hearing impaired, the visually impaired), those who may share significantly different lifestyles (rural and urban children, children who live in extreme poverty, drug dependents), those whose identity is critically influenced by their gender, and those who are significantly influenced by variations in class and religion. (p. 24)

The task of structuring general education environments to facilitate the success of diverse learners is an important challenge facing educators today. Increasing proportions of students—particularly those from culturally diverse backgrounds—are failing to thrive in the current educational system (Cotton, 1991). To date, the typical response to the failure of these students has been to create special programs and services (e.g., special education, compensatory education, alternative schools) into which these students can be channeled. Unfortunately, as noted by Artiles and Trent (1994), these channeling mechanisms are plagued by systemic biases reflected in referral and assessment procedures. As student diversity increases, however, the practice of funneling off atypical learners, or those who do not "fit" traditional classrooms, becomes less expedient (Cotton, 1991). A more rational approach would be to change the educational system in order to accommodate greater student diversity within the context of general education.

Many students from diverse backgrounds have cultural differences that are reflected in their learning styles, learning preferences, and classroom behaviors (Franklin, 1992). These differences predispose students from culturally diverse backgrounds to failure in traditional classrooms that have not been designed to accommodate their strengths and needs. Consequently, these students are at greater risk of being referred and placed in special education programs. For example, African American students are enrolled in programs for students with mental retardation and emotional disturbance at twice the rate to be expected based on the percentage of African Americans in the nation's schools (Williams, 1992). One means of reducing such overrepresentation of students from minority backgrounds is to encourage the development of general education classrooms that can accommodate student diversity in all of its various forms, including cultural differences, learning differences, and differences in socioeconomic background.

Even within the ranks of special education, movements such as inclusion and the regular education initiative seek to reintegrate into

general education classes those learners who have been identified as having disabilities and consequently removed from the mainstream for some portion of the school day. As inclusion and other, similar movements gain momentum, the need to better accommodate student diversity in general education classrooms will continue to grow. The following discussion presents a framework for considering how student diversity can be better accommodated in general education classes.

EXAMINING ATTITUDES AND LEVELS OF UNDERSTANDING

One of the first steps in preparing to accommodate student diversity is to examine one's own attitudes relative to various ethnic, disability, socioeconomic, and gender groups (Branch, Goodwin, & Gualtieri, 1993; Burstein, Cabello, & Hamann, 1993; Cloud, 1993). Research has indicated that teachers often have lowered achievement expectations for students from minority backgrounds, students from lower socioeconomic groups, and students with disability labels (Elliott, Jackson, & Alvarez, 1993; Gollnick & Chinn, 1990). There is also evidence to suggest that school personnel participate in sex role stereotyping (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990). These attitudes can affect teacher–student interactions and influence the nature of educational opportunities provided to students. Grant (1991) argued that "it is necessary for teachers to analyze their biographies in order to determine how the enculturation process influenced them about race, class, and gender issues in regards to other cultures" (p. 247). Based on a 3-year ethnographic study of a junior high school, Grant further stated that "one of the major barriers to students of color receiving a quality education was the teachers' biographies, their lack of understanding—of race, class, gender, and disability issues" (p. 249).

Because underlying beliefs and attitudes greatly affect how teachers go about the act of teaching, it is critical that these beliefs and attitudes be examined. The literature is replete with examples of the negative effects of what has been termed the *self-fulfilling prophecy*, or the notion that teachers somehow inadvertently create qualities that they may consciously or subconsciously ascribe to students based on superficial characteristics such as disability label, race, gender, or socioeconomic status. These beliefs and attitudes affect the way teachers interact with students and affect the type of learning experiences they provide for students. Cushner and colleagues (1992) stated:

> It is perhaps not too much to say that the greatest gift that a teacher can offer a child is not knowledge, not skill development, not evaluation, but rather a fundamental faith that that child can acquire knowledge, develop skills, and demonstrate ability. (p. 120)

Another aspect to be considered is the extent to which teachers are knowledgeable about the various cultures (e.g., African American, Hispanic American, Asian American, American Indian, etc.) that are represented in their classes and in the larger society. This knowledge should go beyond what Garcia and Malkin (1993) termed the "tourist curriculum" (e.g., music, food, dress, and holidays) and should include awareness of (a) language characteristics and communication styles; (b) variations in values and cognitive orientations; (c) social norms and unspoken rules; (d) child-rearing practices; (e) historical experiences; and (f) contributions of members of these cultural groups in fields such as science, mathematics, literature, and the arts. Additionally, it is recommended that teachers have an awareness of their own culture and a general understanding of how culture mediates school learning. Garcia and Malkin (1993) stated that "culturally conditioned influences on educational programs and curriculum development are more difficult to perceive if educators do not have adequate cultural self-awareness and an understanding of other cultures" (p. 53).

A variety of activities have been suggested as a means of gathering cultural information and developing cross-cultural competency. Some of these activities include gathering information from culturally diverse parents, participating in social activities in culturally diverse communities, reading relevant professional literature, taking classes, attending conferences, working with culturally based community groups, and traveling to other countries (Garcia & Malkin, 1993; Obiakor, 1994; Voltz, 1994). Some pitfalls to avoid are stereotyping

and polarization. It is important to recognize within-group differences as well as between-group differences. Likewise, it is important to note similarities as well as differences between groups.

PROMOTING AN ACCEPTING CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT

The affective or social climate of the classroom is critical in facilitating student success. An important step in promoting a classroom environment in which individual differences are accepted and celebrated is to make sure that acceptance is modeled by the teacher and diversity is explicitly valued (Obiakor, 1994). Teacher attitudes, displayed explicitly or implicitly, are critical in shaping the thoughts and actions of all students in the class.

Activities designed to improve student self-confidence, self-acceptance, and sense of belonging also have been viewed as important in creating an accepting classroom environment (Obiakor, 1994; Tiedt & Tiedt, 1990). Activities designed to increase self-acceptance are associated with decreased levels of prejudice directed toward other groups (Baruth & Manning, 1992; Obiakor, 1994). Learning to accept one's self is often an important step in learning to accept others.

Providing opportunities for students to explore their own as well as other cultures is another important element in encouraging a classroom environment in which diversity is celebrated (Dean, Salend, & Taylor, 1993; Obiakor, 1994; Tiedt & Tiedt, 1990). Such opportunities should be provided throughout the year and across the curriculum, rather than being limited to a particular subject or time of year. Cross-cultural similarities as well as differences should be highlighted in class discussions and activities.

Related to the notion of sharing information about diverse groups is the notion of developing empathy and understanding for others. It has been suggested that such understanding may be fostered through simulations (Cushner et al., 1992; Franklin, 1992). For example, cross-cultural simulations help students understand what it is like to attempt to operate in another culture. This can be simulated through establishing artificial "cultures" by separating the class into groups and teaching idiosyncratic ways of interacting based upon group membership. Members of different groups are then asked to interact with each other. This experience can produce anxiety and confusion, since members of one group are not aware of or do not understand the idiosyncratic behaviors and beliefs of the other. This activity also helps to point out the relativity of behavioral norms and the power of the dominant culture to establish and maintain those norms (Delpit, 1992). In the same vein, disability simulations will allow nondisabled learners to experience the impact disabilities can have on life functions and how the sensitivity of others in society helps to determine the extent to which those disabilities become "handicaps." For example, a physical disability may be simulated through the use of a wheelchair. In participating in such a simulation, students may experience frustrations associated with architectural and attitudinal barriers, as well as uninformed beliefs (e.g., the belief that persons in wheelchairs have mental retardation).

Improving intergroup interaction is yet another means of facilitating a positive classroom environment. The term *intergroup interaction*, as used in this instance, refers to interaction between members of different racial or ethnic groups, interaction between males and females, interaction between learners with and without disabilities, or interaction between members of different socioeconomic groups. It has been suggested that providing opportunities for students to engage in equal-status contact and to work together toward a common goal facilitates intergroup interaction (Miller-Lachmann & Taylor, 1995). Instructional formats such as cooperative learning can be used as vehicles for structuring these experiences (Dettmer, Thurston, & Dyck, 1993; Goor & Schwenn, 1993). Seating arrangements and classroom organization also can be used to facilitate intergroup interaction (Garcia & Malkin, 1993).

Attending to the physical presentation of the classroom also is important in promoting an accepting, inclusive environment. For example, pictures, bulletin boards, and other visual aids should reflect diversity in terms of ethnic backgrounds, socioeconomic backgrounds, gender, disability, and other visual

characteristics of persons depicted. The physical organization of the classroom should accommodate the needs of learners with physical and/or sensory disabilities. Classroom libraries should contain books that reflect diversity, avoid stereotyping, and are written in the various languages represented in the class. Additionally, greetings and signs used in the classroom should be written in various languages, and opportunities, other than native language instruction, should be provided for students from linguistically diverse backgrounds to use their first language in the classroom (Garcia & Malkin, 1993).

PERSONALIZING INSTRUCTION

Learning has been considered by some as an elaboration of what is already known. Pewewardy (1992) indicated that "the brain is continually attempting to categorize and pattern new information with what is already stored" (p. 211). This perspective makes clear the importance of using what is known and familiar to the student as a point of departure for further instruction. Students' areas of interest, background experiences, prior knowledge, learning preferences, and learning styles must be considered in order to provide instruction that is appropriate to them (Brantlinger & Guskin, 1985; McDiarmid, 1991; Obiakor, 1994). According to McDiarmid (1991),

> Many students think school knowledge has little to do with them, their friends, and family. They don't know where the information and ideas in their textbooks and about which their teachers talk come from, why they need to learn these things, and what such things have to do with them and the world in which they live. (p. 259)

In order to reduce the "disembodied and alien nature" of what is taught in schools, McDiarmid (1991) proposed that a relationship between learners and subject matter, between teacher and subject matter, and between teachers and learners be preserved. This implies not only that teachers should be familiar with the content to be taught, but also that they should be familiar with the learners to whom it is to be taught.

The tried and true educational cliché of linking school learning with the student's real world also assumes that teachers have a knowledge of what the student's "real world" is. This means that teachers should be able to determine the perspectives of students and, to some degree, be able to see the world as they do, or to share their world perspective (Franklin, 1992). To understand students on this level, particularly if they are of a different culture, requires a willingness to expend extra time and energy gathering information about students through observation, informal discussions, and home visits—or, in other words, through becoming a "student of your students" (Voltz & Damiano-Lantz, 1993). In this way, things that students find important or interesting can be determined. This information can then serve as a context or point of departure for school learning. This idea is embodied in approaches such as thematic instruction or interdisciplinary learning (Voltz, 1993; Voltz & Damiano-Lantz, 1993).

Varying skill and ability level is another factor that must be considered in personalizing instruction. Prior to instruction, curriculum-based assessment tools, along with direct observation and work sample analysis, can be used to determine each student's instructional level relative to skills and concepts included in the curriculum. Based on the results of these measures, specific learning outcomes can be targeted for each student and identified in personalized instructional plans. Student portfolios that house ongoing assessment results, anecdotal records, work samples, and any other evidence of student development can be maintained to monitor student progress toward the accomplishment of the specified learning objectives (Swicegood, 1994; Voltz, 1993).

To facilitate the implementation of the personalized instructional plans, a number of strategies may be implemented to supplement traditional large-group instruction. These strategies include (a) small-group instruction for focused skill teaching, with the composition of these groups being constituted and reconstituted on an as-needed basis; (b) peer-mediated learning strategies such as cooperative learning formats, peer tutoring, and cross-age tutoring; (c) individualized learning center activities; (d) computer-assisted instruction;

and (e) "pull-in" services provided by special education personnel (e.g., small-group and individual instruction in the general education class, team teaching, and support services from special education paraprofessionals) (Cotton, 1991; Dettmer et al., 1993; Franklin, 1992; Goor & Schwenn, 1993; Voltz, 1993). Research conducted on approaches such as peer tutoring and cooperative learning have yielded promising results. However, some caution that these results should be considered "suggestive rather than conclusive" (Lloyd, Crowley, Kohler, & Strain, 1988, p. 49).

Although there is some debate regarding the empirical basis supporting the notion of variance in cognitive styles, many feel that this is an important consideration in personalizing instruction (Franklin, 1992; Miller-Lachmann & Taylor, 1995). Cushner and colleagues (1992) stated, "People *learn* how to learn in a particular way. Socialization in any cultural milieu not only teaches one such things as what language to speak and what nonverbal communicative behaviors to use, but how to learn as well" (p. 108). In some cases, differences can exist between students in terms of preferred cognitive styles. For example, some students are more right-brain oriented in their thinking styles, while others tend to emphasize functions of the left brain (Pewewardy, 1992). Likewise, there is evidence to suggest that some learners may be more field sensitive in their cognitive styles than others (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990; McCormick, 1990). Field-sensitive learners make use of the context of a learning situation. They are said to "require the forest in order to see the trees" (Cushner et al., 1992, p. 110). Field-sensitive students may be referred to as *global learners*, since they focus on broader concepts before details. On the other hand, some learners are said to be field independent in that they tend to focus on specifics and are less influenced by surrounding context. These students are often referred to as *analytical learners* and tend to learn best when instruction is organized in discrete, incremental steps. Related to the concept of field sensitivity is the notion that some students learn best in context through hands-on, authentic tasks, rather than out of context through books, lectures, and worksheets. Additionally, some learners prefer cooperative versus competitive or individualistic learning formats (Gollnick & Chinn, 1990; Goor & Schwenn, 1993). Each of these aspects of a student's cognitive style must be considered in planning and delivering instruction. Unless they become more willing to consider individual student learning characteristics (e.g., background experiences and learning styles), educators will be unable to assist students in reaching their fullest potential (Brantlinger & Guskin, 1985).

TEACHING WITH A MULTICULTURAL PERSPECTIVE

Teaching with a multicultural perspective is an important aspect of accommodating student diversity. Students should experience instruction that reflects the diversity present in the society. This is important for all learners. According to Smith (1992), "It will be the monolingual, monocultural, ethnocentric individuals who will be the dinosaurs of the twenty-first century. Another way to say this is that 'the multiculturally stupid shall perish'" (p. 289).

Multicultural education should be comprehensive and should permeate the entire curriculum. It should extend beyond the study of foods, fashions, and festivals associated with various cultures. Goals such as developing pluralistic perspectives regarding historical and contemporary events, developing cross-cultural competency, and examining the influence of race and culture on the power structure of our society are also important aspects of multicultural education (Banks, 1991; Davidman & Davidman, 1994; Obiakor, 1994).

In addition to examining the content of what is taught, education that is truly multicultural also considers the methods and materials of instruction. As previously discussed, culture influences not only *what* people learn, but also *how* they learn. This makes it critical to examine and accommodate the various cognitive styles that may characterize diverse learners. Dean and colleagues (1993) noted, "An important component of multicultural education is the use of culturally responsive instruction, in which educators employ instructional strategies and curriculum adaptations that are consistent with students' experiences, cultural perspectives, and developmental ages" (p. 41). Additionally, care must be taken to make sure

that teaching materials are free of stereotypes and reflect all groups in a positive manner. It has been recommended that instructional materials be examined to ensure (a) representation of diverse ethnic groups, including men and women, as well as persons with disabilities; (b) avoidance of stereotypes and generalizations; (c) plurality of viewpoints and attitudes; (d) inclusion of the history, heritage, and traditions of various groups; (e) nonsexist, nondiscriminatory language; and (f) avoidance of the fragmentation that occurs when issues, contributions, or information about various groups are isolated to particular chapters in a text or segments of the curriculum (Dean et al., 1993; Garcia & Malkin, 1993; Gollnick & Chinn, 1990; Voltz & Damiano-Lantz, 1993). For example, when contributions of persons such as George Washington Carver are limited to African American History Month, rather than being integrated throughout the curriculum, marginalization of these persons can occur.

In order to truly pursue education that is multicultural, the structure of the educational system also must be examined. Such examination should be designed to eliminate structural elements that serve to replicate the stratification of our society by placing certain groups at a disadvantage or by creating or exacerbating group performance differences (Sleeter & Grant, 1994). For example, some have taken issue with the graded structure of our schools. Shankshaft (1986) argued that the graded structure of schools is based on male developmental patterns, in that females mature earlier and are ready to develop verbal and math skills at an earlier age. Yet, the graded structure of our schools is designed to accommodate male developmental patterns. Cuban (1989) also decried the graded structure of schools on the grounds that its inflexibility contributes to the failure of students from low socioeconomic and minority backgrounds whose needs and characteristics were not considered in the design of the graded school structure. Cuban (1989) remarked:

> Beyond overt racism, the effect of long-term poverty can disfigure families and children . . . . I argue that the graded school unintentionally worsens these social disadvantages by branding students for the duration of their careers through the mechanism of separate classes and programs. (p. 782)

The use of tracking, special education, or remedial programs has been criticized on the grounds that such differential grouping affects the type of instruction to which a student is exposed and hence creates wider variance between the segregated group and the mainstream (Raynes, Snell, & Sailor, 1991). On this issue McGill-Franzen and Allington (1991) noted:

> The limited resources available to poor families and aspects of the cultural and linguistic differences in language interactions within minority communities may contribute somewhat to low reading achievement, but schools themselves contribute most. We believe that schools provide instructional experiences to low achievers that are often qualitatively different from those of their high achieving peers. Because simple texts and trivial tasks are emphasized, such experiences rarely accelerate the literacy development of low achievers and often restrict the kinds of knowledge available to these learners. (p. 21)

Structural elements such as these must be examined more closely to provide education that is truly multicultural.

COLLABORATING WITH OTHER PROFESSIONALS

Perhaps the inclination of schools toward field-independent traits has predisposed practitioners to operate with a high degree of isolation, such that little collaboration occurs among the professionals who are collectively charged to educate children and youth. In many schools, the collaborative ethic that supports activities such as joint problem solving and team teaching is sorely lacking. In order to meet the demands of increased student diversity, however, educators will increasingly need to pool resources, skills, and talents (Dettmer et al., 1993; Johnson & Pugach, 1992; Thousand, Villa, Paolucci-Whitcomb, & Nevin, 1992). It will take the collective efforts of professionals in general education, special education, compensatory education, bilingual education, and any other faction within the larger educational system to adequately address the challenges inherent in educating a diverse student population.

Collaborative approaches such as teacher assistance teams have been suggested as a means of reducing the number of inappropriate referrals to special education. This is especially important in the case of learners from culturally diverse backgrounds who are typically overrepresented in high-incidence disability areas such as emotional disturbance and mental retardation (Swicegood, 1994). Bay, Bryan, and O'Connor (1994) developed a prereferral strategy found effective in a diverse urban school district. This approach involved three components, namely:

1. Information-sharing sessions during which university faculty shared information and stimulated discussions on teacher-selected topics.
2. Peer exchange sessions during which teachers brainstormed ways to apply the information shared by university faculty in assisting students who were experiencing difficulty.
3. Peer coaching teams that allowed teachers to implement the strategies discussed with support and feedback from their peers.

This approach was shown to have a positive impact on referral rates.

Other collaborative roles have been suggested as a means of promoting interaction between general and special educators in the event that special education services have been deemed necessary. Collaborative consultation is an example of such a role. In collaborative consultation, the relationship between participants is collegial, with no one person designated as "the expert" (Thousand et al., 1992). The acronym *CLASP* represents the essential steps in the collaborative problem-solving process (Voltz, 1992):

C = Clarify the problem. Describe the instructional challenge with enough specificity to facilitate a common understanding and assist in solution generation.

L = Look at influencing factors. Analyze factors that may be influencing or contributing to the behavior in question.

A = Actively explore intervention options. Jointly brainstorm intervention options that may positively impact the problem.

S = Select the best option. Evaluate the interventions generated during the brainstorming stage of the process and attempt to reach consensus on the most feasible and likely-to-be-successful intervention.

P = Plan to implement the selected intervention. Outline a plan that details logistical concerns such as who will do what when as well as how and when the effectiveness of the intervention will be assessed.

Specific consultation competencies related to exceptional learners from culturally diverse backgrounds have been identified by Harris (1991). These competencies include (a) understanding your own perspective in terms of ethnic minorities, students with exceptionalities, and working with bilingual and special educators; (b) using effective communication in cross-cultural interactions and working with interpreters in these interactions; (c) understanding the skills that can be contributed by bilingual and special educators in working toward instructional objectives related to exceptional learners from culturally diverse backgrounds; and (d) incorporating language and cultural considerations in assessment and instruction. These areas may merit special consideration in the collaborative problem-solving process when related to exceptional learners from culturally diverse backgrounds.

Cooperative teaching is an additional collaborative role that has been recommended as a means of facilitating interaction and accommodating diverse learning needs in general education classes (Dettmer et al., 1993; Voltz, 1992). Bauwens, Hourcade, and Friend (1989) defined cooperative teaching as "an educational approach in which general and special educators work in a coactive and coordinated fashion to jointly teach academically and behaviorally heterogeneous groups of students in educationally integrated settings" (p. 18). Specific roles general and special education teachers play vary from situation to situation. In some cases, general education teachers may take primary responsibility for content instruction while special education teachers may take primary responsibility for teaching the skills that support content learning (e.g., attending

skills, notetaking skills, and study skills). In other cases, cooperative teaching may involve joint delivery of content instruction and supporting skills, with both teachers taking equal responsibility in both areas.

Other recommended collaborative roles include routinely exchanging student progress information, sharing responsibility for grading, collaboratively developing individualized education programs and instructional plans, conducting joint parental conferences, and participating in cooperative professional development activities (Dettmer et al., 1993; Voltz, 1992).

Collaborating with professionals in community and social service agencies outside of the school also has been found important in meeting the needs of diverse learners. Some learners may have health needs, as well as personal or family challenges (e.g., substance abuse problems and family abuse or neglect) that require services beyond the scope of the school. In this event, educators should be prepared to connect families with appropriate agencies and organizations in the community (Cotton, 1991; Dettmer et al., 1993).

Developing collaborative relationships with universities also has been viewed as a promising approach in assisting teachers in accommodating diversity. Often, university faculty serve as resources for professional development. Ongoing professional development in the area of accommodating student diversity is critical (Fager, Andrews, Shepherd, & Quinn, 1993; Garcia & Malkin, 1993). Ironically, this is an area of weakness in many preservice teacher preparation programs; hence, practicing teachers often view accommodating diversity as a continued area of need for professional development. Elliott and colleagues (1993) stated:

> The major shortcoming of teacher education institutions today is their failure to devise curricula that produces teachers with the awareness, understanding, and skill necessary to deal successfully with students from diverse cultural backgrounds and students whose ways of learning differ. (p. 75)

An example of what a university–school partnership might look like was outlined by Wesson, Voltz, and Ridley (1994). These authors described professional development activities for preservice and inservice teachers at an urban elementary-level professional development school. Some of these activities include (a) student teaching and fieldwork opportunities for preservice teachers; (b) coursework taught by university faculty at the school site; and (c) action research and case-writing groups for inservice teachers. Through these activities, both preservice and inservice teachers were afforded the opportunity to investigate and share their perspectives regarding teaching in a diverse urban setting.

COLLABORATING WITH PARENTS

True collaboration means working effectively not only with professionals but also with parents and families (Dettmer et al., 1993; Johnson & Pugach, 1992). This is the larger context in which the educational process occurs. As Marion (1979) pointed out, "Historically and legally, the function of education in this country has been vested in state educational agencies and chiefly delegated to local school districts; but in reality, the family is the primary educator" (p. 1). Consequently, when school personnel and parents fail to work together, the student's educational program suffers.

Despite the fact that parent involvement has been regarded as an integral part of the educational process, a number of practices occur that are counterproductive in efforts to solicit parent participation (Ford, Obiakor, & Patton, 1995; Harry, Torguson, Katkavich, & Guerrero, 1993; Obiakor, 1994). One stifling practice is the use of a "menu-driven" approach that attempts to force parents into predetermined roles they have little or no role in shaping. A prescribed set of behaviors is offered to parents as *the* way to interact with school personnel. In this case, school professionals are unilaterally determining what the parameters of the relationship will be between parents and educators. If parents feel uncomfortable with the school's conceptualization of parent involvement, they may choose to abstain from any of the roles made available to them by school personnel. In truly collaborative approaches, parity must exist between members of the collaborative team, which implies that parents should enjoy a greater role

in shaping the nature of parent–teacher interactions (Ford & Obiakor, 1995).

A second counterproductive practice that school personnel sometimes engage in is the "tracking" of parents. This occurs when school personnel decide, either consciously or subconsciously, that certain groups of parents are usually "concerned parents" (the redbirds) who want to be involved in the education of their children, while other groups of parents are usually "unconcerned parents" (the buzzards) who are not interested in being involved in the education of their children (Voltz, 1994). Based on these preconceived notions, teacher interactions with the redbirds may be qualitatively and quantitatively different from interactions with the buzzards. Greater efforts may be exerted to involve the redbirds, who are assumed to be concerned, than are exerted to involve the buzzards, who are assumed not to care. Likewise, the suggestions, criticisms, and contributions of the redbirds may be more highly valued and taken more seriously than those of the buzzards. Consequently, some of the variance in the response of the redbirds and the buzzards to the school may be partly due to differences in the nature of the school's interactions with the redbirds and the buzzards from the outset. Teacher expectations can affect parent–teacher interactions in the same way that teacher expectations can affect student–teacher interactions (Baruth & Manning, 1992; Obiakor, 1994; Voltz, 1994).

A third problematic area in promoting effective partnerships with parents from culturally diverse backgrounds is lack of sensitivity to cultural differences. This may be the result of limited exposure to individuals from diverse backgrounds, or it may stem from reluctance to accommodate cultural and linguistic differences, even though these differences are recognized (Obiakor, 1994). This attitude develops from a low tolerance for diversity. If the cultural and linguistic differences of parents are not taken into account, however, regardless of the reason, the development of optimal relationships with parents from culturally diverse backgrounds will be problematic (Baruth & Manning, 1992; Voltz, 1994).

Developing an atmosphere of trust and respect has been recommended as an important step in promoting effective collaborative relationships with parents. As a means to this end, it is suggested that school professionals (a) use titles such as *Mr.*, *Ms.*, or *Mrs.* when addressing parents, unless prompted by the parent not to do so; (b) use a tone of voice that reflects courtesy and respect and is not condescending or insincere; (c) use understandable language, avoiding "educationese"; and (d) listen to parents and convey the message that their input is valued.

Making sure that parent-teacher relationships are truly collaborative also is important. The "menu-driven" approach to parental involvement should be avoided. Rather, parents and teachers should work together to establish parent roles that are deemed feasible and productive by both parties. Shea and Bauer (1993) developed an individualized model of parent–teacher collaboration that may be used as a means to this end. This five-step model includes (1) intake and assessment, which involves ascertaining parental needs, desires, and interests regarding the education of their children; (2) joint selection of goals and activities designed to address the identified needs, desires, and interests; (3) joint planning and implementation of the activities identified; (4) joint evaluation of activities; and (5) review of the collaborative plan.

In the development and implementation of collaborative parent–teacher plans, it is recommended that school personnel exercise cultural sensitivity. This includes recognizing and accommodating cultural differences, considering variance in family constellations, considering variance in attitudes toward disability, and respecting variance in childrearing practices (Voltz, 1994).

CONCLUSION

The increasing diversity present in schools today is challenging educators to rethink educational practices. As Cushner and colleagues (1992) stated:

> We are reaping the sometimes bitter harvest of a struggling educational system that seemingly can rely only on old habits, customs, and beliefs in the face of changing circumstances . . . . we are handcuffed to a system based on certain beliefs, assumptions, and behaviors that do not serve us well today. The increased diversity in our society and schools

> demands that we change our habitual ways of interacting with and educating our children. (p. 10)

To accommodate the strengths and needs of our changing student population, we must reconceptualize this thing we call "school" to make it more responsive to the diverse students it serves. This will require fundamental changes in our educational system. Although change is sometimes frightening, the alternative, in this case, is even more so.

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Issues in the Implementation of Innovative Instructional Strategies

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One of the biggest issues in the current educational literature is the topic of reform. The push for reform was given impetus by the publication of the report *A Nation at Risk* by the National Commission on Excellence in Education (1983). It appears that few are satisfied with current educational practices and structure. Dissatisfaction has been especially strong regarding programs for students who come from diverse nonmainstream cultural backgrounds or speak languages other than English and who are characterized by schools as having learning problems.

A secondary effect of calls for reform has been an increasingly intense examination of the underlying foundations of education such as goals and instructional paradigms. The focus of reform has increasingly moved in the direction of more emphasis on higher-order thinking and problem solving and a philosophical position that all students can learn when provided with an educational system characterized by high expectations, public assessment, and professional collaboration (Task Force on Teaching as a Profession, 1986). Underlying these ideas is the notion that teachers, as primary change agents, must be empowered to ensure progress for all students. Moreover, there must be a significant shift in teachers' instructional paradigms and the underlying belief systems and assumptions about teaching and learning. Clearly, a major assumption is that reform is solidly tied to professional development. The idea carries with it major implications for both students with learning problems and students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds, who are the focus of this article.

One of the key problems with this otherwise positive reform movement is that the implementation of local change has been slow, inconsistent, or in some cases nonexistent. Often there is a mismatch between the theories, beliefs, and assumptions underlying change and those found at the level of classroom practice. The difficulties are compounded when language and cultural diversity are factored in, especially in the context of remedial and special educational programs. What are some of the dynamics of this change process? Why doesn't change happen very easily? How can it be fostered?

These issues are explored in this article. The discussion is based on work the authors have conducted over the past few years centered on developing more effective instructional environments for students who are at various stages of acquiring English and are considered by schools to have learning problems. Therefore, a large segment of the discussion is within the context of special education and remedial settings, but the issues raised cut across educational settings and student characteristics. An examination of discrepancies

between theory and practice is followed by discussion of some of the dynamics of the change process. Finally, the role of institutional constraints that are part of everyday classroom settings is examined and how these factors influence reform and restructuring efforts is discussed.

THE GREAT DIVIDE: A LOOK AT THE GAP BETWEEN PRACTICE AND THEORY

An examination of the current literature suggests that there have been significant changes in theories of teaching and learning, especially as they involve children's acquisition of literacy (Marshall, 1992). In many cases these theoretical advances underlie current educational reforms and innovations, and often they represent a significant change from the theories that form the basis of more traditional pedagogical practices. However, there is some indication that there is often a discrepancy between practicioners' theories or views and those upon which desirable reforms and innovations are based (Rueda & Garcia, 1992).

One troubling issue of the reform movement is the obstacle to change that may result from a mismatch between the theories underlying reform and innovation and the theories teachers bring to the classroom. This discrepancy can significantly affect how or even whether changes are implemented. Given the importance of recent theoretical developments to reform and restructuring efforts, it is valuable to examine the changes in theory in a bit more detail.

Current Views of Learning and Instruction

As suggested, there have been significant changes in understandings of the process of learning and the factors that impede or foster it (Perkins, Jay, & Tishman, 1993). For example, the late 1970s and 1980s witnessed the dominance of cognitive psychology and information processing theory as a foundation for the bulk of research, theory, and intervention strategies.

The cognitive perspective has been influential in shifting the focus of research on learning to the strategic and self-regulatory behaviors "experts" use in learning and problem solving (Palincsar & Klenk, 1992). Much of this work has focused on areas shown to have a large influence in school achievement: knowledge base, strategies and skills, and knowledge about mental processes (metacognition) (Butterfield & Ferretti, 1987). Younger and less mature learners (a) have smaller memory capacities or a less efficient working memory process, (b) have smaller and less elaborately organized knowledge bases, (c) use fewer, simpler, and more passive processing strategies, (d) have less metacognitive understanding of their own cognitive systems, and (e) use less complete and flexible executive processes for controlling thinking than do expert learners. A good review of research in these areas with special education students is found in Borkowski and Day (1987). In addition, Dillon (1986) has discussed the application of this framework to assessment. In general, this framework has led to much less emphasis on decontextualized drill and practice and rote recall and more focus on higher-order thinking, the processes involved in complex problem solving, children's use of strategic behavior, and self-regulated learning.

Beyond the cognitive perspective, an emerging social constructivist perspective has begun to impact views of thinking and learning. This view draws heavily from Vygotsky and his followers; it emphasizes the sociocultural processes involved in learning and thinking and the connections between more formal academic learning and cognition in everyday settings (Poplin, 1988b; Poplin & Stone, 1992; Ruiz, 1989; Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). This theory stresses meaning as socially created in interaction with more competent others on authentic, whole tasks of significance to the individual.

There are several common areas of emphasis in the cognitive and social constructivist frameworks. Among these are the focus on constructivism or meaning (Mehan, 1983); focus on higher-order thinking; self-regulation as a characteristic of the mature or expert learner (Rohrkemper, 1989); and a focus on active, not passive, participation in learning. In terms of learning and instruction, both the cognitive and sociocultural frameworks have led to increased concern with the impact of social

mediation on performance, the impact of context on learning and thinking, and the sociocultural knowledge students bring to the task. These views are evident in many of the educational reform efforts that emphasize meaning-making processes in instruction, collaborative problem-driven projects on authentic tasks, student choice, and the like.

Many current educational innovations have been influenced not only by the views of teaching and learning briefly reviewed here, but also by changes in theories of children's acquisition of literacy.

Changing Views of Language and Literacy

A review of the current literature suggests that there has been a significant shift in how literacy and literacy instruction are viewed. The very definition of literacy has changed from the rather narrow traditional focus on hierarchically arranged sequences of discrete skills (Hiebert, 1991). Whereas literacy in the past was seen as the ability to read and write, it is now seen more as a practice or set of practices, as the "ability to think and reason like a literate person, within a particular society" (Langer, 1991, p. 11). In other words, literacy is socially situated, and in addition there is more than one type of literacy.

The constructivist perspective has also been influential, as evidenced by the current emphasis in reading comprehension and writing research on the extent to which readers' or writers' background knowledge, experiences, and purpose impact understanding and the creation of meaning from text. This view of literacy as an active, constructive process is reflected in new curriculum standards such as those of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (1989) and the National Association for the Education of Young Children (Bredekamp, 1987), as well as in the curriculum frameworks of California, Michigan, and other states. (A good example of this perspective in the context of special education practice is found in Englert, 1992.)

Given the focus of this article on students from linguistically diverse backgrounds, it is important to examine recent developments related to literacy instruction for these students in particular. Current theory and research suggest that language proficiency is a significant mediator of performance on assessment measures (see Valdés & Figueroa, 1995, for an extensive review of the literature regarding bilingualism and assessment). While language diversity in the past has sometimes been viewed as a deficit that impedes learning and cognitive development, current views suggest that proficiency in more than one language may actually be beneficial and must be accommodated in the design of instructional programs (Hakuta, 1986; Hakuta & Diaz, 1984).

Taken together, these theories of teaching, learning, and literacy underlie some general principles that have proved effective in the education of students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds and that represent a change from the earlier literature (Au, 1993; Cummins, 1989; Delgado-Gaitan, 1990; Delgado-Gaitan & Trueba, 1991; Moll & Greenberg, 1990; Tharp, 1989; Trueba, Guthrie, & Au, 1981), particularly for those in special education (Cummins, 1984; Ruiz, 1989; Swedo, 1987; Viera, 1986; Willig & Swedo, 1987). Specifically, the most effective instructional practices for children from linguistically diverse backgrounds appear to incorporate the following characteristics:

- They build strong connections to background knowledge.
- They build on existing competence or "funds of knowledge."
- They provide activities that are perceived as meaningful and authentic by the students.
- They require active rather than passive participation, especially in joint productive activity.
- They value and incorporate the language of the students in high-level academic activity.
- They permit "nonstandard" interactional patterns where appropriate to support learning.

An affirmation of these principles was provided in a videotape study of classroom instruction reported by Swedo (1987) that examined the relationship between student task engagement and the use of effective instructional contexts. Videotaped episodes of special education were coded for the level of the engagement of the students participating in a given task. Fourteen activities in which very high or very low levels of student engagement

were exhibited were selected for further analysis. It was found that "academic activities associated with the most intensive and prolonged levels of task engagement drew heavily upon, and encouraged expression of, students' experiences, language background, and interests. Furthermore, they were holistic in nature in that they did not involve learning or drilling of isolated, decontextualized segments of information." (Swedo, 1987, p. 3). Closer analysis of activities that were associated with a rating of students as "intensively engaged" indicated that they were characterized by (a) student choice and control, (b) focus on content rather than linguistic forms, (c) opportunities for participation in either Spanish or English, (d) collaborative work with other students, (e) peer feedback, and (f) a sense of accountability to peers.

In contrast, many writers have alluded to the less than ideal instructional conditions encountered by students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds both within and outside the special education system. As the next section points out, regular, as well as remedial and special education, often is not aligned with these principles.

A Mismatch Between Recent Theory and Classroom Practice

In spite of the fact that theories of how to educate students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds have advanced considerably, many programs and school practices continue to rely on traditional unconnected instruction and assessment procedures focused upon low-level recall and the production of predetermined correct responses. Many authors have noted the discrepancy between current theory and common testing and instructional procedures and have argued for reducing the mismatch (Johnston, 1984, 1989; Jett-Simpson et al., 1990; Pearson & Valencia, 1987; Resnick, 1989; Tierney & McGinley, 1993; Tierney, Carter, & Desai, 1991; Valencia, McGinley, & Pearson, 1990; Wixson, Peters, Weber, & Roeber, 1987). In special education, reform is particularly critical, not only because of the large numbers of linguistically diverse students (Figueroa, 1990; Ortiz & Yates, 1983), but also because of mounting criticism of the lock-step, teacher-dominated, reductionist teaching practices and curricula that have been so favored in these remedial settings in the past (Figueroa, Fradd, & Correa, 1989; Poplin, 1988a).

An example of the mismatch between current theory and everyday classroom practice is found within the context of a long-term collaborative research project that has been examining the restructuring of instructional and service delivery models for students with mild learning problems in bilingual special education pull-out classrooms in California. The overall goal of the project has been to develop, implement, and test a specially designed model of instruction, the Optimal Learning Environment (OLE) (Figueroa, Ruiz, & Rueda, 1990; Ruiz, Figueroa, Rueda, & Beaumont, 1992). A more specific initial goal of the research team was to capture changes in participants' beliefs, assumptions, and theoretical frameworks or "folk theories" regarding the acquisition and teaching of literacy. Of particular interest was how these belief systems and folk theories were impacted by the presence of learning disabilities and cultural and linguistic differences, and how they changed over time. The early phases of the research focused on collecting ethnographic baseline information (i.e., describing and analyzing existing traditional instruction in the four bilingual special education pull-out classrooms that comprised the research sites before implementation of the experimental OLE curriculum). A major goal of this phase of the research was to describe the activity settings, or contexts for action, teaching, learning, and task competence especially as related to the development of literacy (Tharp & Gallimore, 1989; Weisner, Gallimore, & Jordan, 1988). The specific elements of these teaching/learning activity settings included personnel, motives, tasks, scripts, and goals/beliefs (Weisner et al., 1988). Reports of this phase of the research are found in Rueda, Figueroa, and Ruiz (1990) and Ruiz, Figueroa and colleagues (1992). Later phases of the research have focused on assisting teachers in developing and implementing instructional practices more consistent with a constructivist framework; these will be described in the next section.

The four pull-out classrooms were located in two school districts in California: a large urban school district and a rural school district with a large concentration of migrant students. There were about 120 children under study for this project, about 90% of whom were Spanish-English bilinguals. Three of the teachers were Anglo, and one was Hispanic, and all the aides were bilingual. The principal data sources for this study were formal and informal interviews with teachers and assistants, fieldnotes from classroom observations, videotapes of classrooms, student work products, and teacher journals kept during project meetings. These data sources formed the basis for describing and explaining the process and nature of teacher change over the course of the study.

Close examination of both written products and videotaped samples of instruction over a 1-year period suggested that the type of written work given to students was low level and reductionist (Poplin, 1988a, 1988b) or recitation-like (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988). For example, many of the written products consisted of worksheet exercises with a letter-level or word-level focus. In some cases, the focus was not even on individual letters, but on abstract figures. There were few instances in which students were given the opportunity to engage in narrative or other writing, either teacher initiated or student generated. Analysis of the videotaped instructional events indicated that talk tended to be highly scripted and teacher-dominated. This is consistent with the research that suggests that low-achieving and at-risk students often receive low-level instruction (Allington, 1991), especially if they are non English speaking (Moll & Diaz, 1987). Clearly, at least from this study, there appears to be a big discrepancy between the kinds of instruction students are exposed to and what the literature suggests are favorable instructional environments.

CHANGING PRACTICE: WHERE DO WE START?

One explanation for the gap between theory and practice is that teachers are simply incompetent, a view that underlies much of the push for tighter screening and testing for teachers. However, when one considers the scores of dedicated and intelligent teachers who have taught over the years, this is a weak explanation. A more likely explanation is related to the existing belief systems or personal theories that practitioners bring to the classroom and that mitigate against change.

Unfortunately, there is relatively little research regarding how reform is experienced or translated by the key reformers (i.e., teachers, in their everyday interactions with students). Some teachers will see the new ideas as supporting their already existing views and approaches (Ball, 1990). Some will see reform as an opportunity to make small modifications (Peterson, 1990). But for others involved in the reform and restructuring of school systems and/or implementing alternative teaching and learning paradigms, these reforms can be expected to conflict with and provide sometimes painful challenges to established, valued belief systems and practices (Tharp & Gallimore, 1988).

The literature suggests that one of the keys to successful reform is to know as much as possible about how change is interpreted and experienced by teachers over an extended period, as well as how it is integrated with existing belief systems. The importance of this dimension was first suggested in conversations with teachers, aides, and individual students in early work in the OLE classrooms mentioned earlier (Ruiz et al., in press). While teachers most often discussed students' academic and learning problems in terms of "processing problems," "sequencing ability," and other, similar child-based factors, classroom aides most often referred to social and community-based factors such as divorce, family economic problems, and the impact of gangs and violence in the community. One clear suggestion from these observations is that how teachers view the world is important, and it is greatly influenced by professional training.

An examination of belief systems or "folk theories" of learning and development and how they relate to the change process has resulted in three patterns or sets of findings (Ruiz, Rueda, Figueroa, & Boothroyd, in press). First, the data suggest that change is an uneven, stage-like, transitional process rather than an all-or-none phenomenon. Second, change is directly

related to the type of assistance and collaboration provided by researchers or other collaborators. Third, reflective self-examination of one's folk theory or philosophy of teaching—or meta-awareness—appears to be a necessary precondition to meaningful change.

Change as a Transitional Process

Although there were significant differences in the teachers' instructional practices in the OLE project (Ruiz et al., in press), there were major commonalities as well. For example, the constructivist approach to teaching was antithetical to the reductionist practices and belief systems the teachers in the study often displayed. A skills-based, remedial, teacher-driven approach to learning and curriculum was found to predominate in every classroom. Most important, students' low level of academic success was seen as being due to within-child deficits, often of a perceptual or neurological nature. The students' native language and culture were seen as something to overcome on the road to mastery of standard English.

In spite of these initial patterns, each teacher made significant shifts in orientation and belief system (Ruiz et al., in press). However, this change process was neither brief nor even. There were often marked discrepancies between the views teachers voiced and the practices they implemented. Progress was often followed by shifts back to familiar and comfortable teaching practices. In short, the data indicated that change was not a simple, unidimensional process. There appears to be a point in the change process at which teachers internalize the conceptual elements of paradigmatic change, as evidenced by their verbalizations, although this does not carry over into actual practice. Alternatively, this transitional stage may be characterized by changing one's instructional practices without having modified the existing belief system. At present, it is unclear whether these patterns represent distinct, as opposed to alternative but equivalent, transitional stages.

Change as a Function of Type of Assistance

Naively, researchers sometimes work with a group of teachers in a fairly didactic, transmission-oriented fashion. That is, as the "experts," the researchers believe themselves to have command of a powerful theory that will help the teachers better serve their students. Unfortunately, the uptake from this type of approach is almost nonexistent. Using transmission-like assistance to promote constructive-like practice is not very effective. Only after much self-examination is the paradox of this approach evident, leading to an attempt to find approaches more consistent with other theoretical frameworks.

According to Wagner (1991), one of the powerful factors mediating the change process is guidance or assistance by someone whom the teachers consider a peer (i.e., a member of their own occupational community). In the case of the OLE project (Ruiz et al., in press), this was provided either by a master teacher working as part of the project or by one of the teachers participating in the study. When teachers view modeling and experimentation by a "more competent other" accompanied by assistance and support during their own later attempts to incorporate new practices, change is facilitated (Vygotsky, 1978). In the OLE project, once one teacher began to implement the strategies, others followed and began to notice the increasing enthusiasm and academic success of the students. This led to a pattern of experimentation, which in turn led to more positive judgments about the competence of the students in the course.

The Role of Reflection and Self-Examination

A final factor that appears to be a necessary element of the change process is the opportunity for teachers to examine their own belief systems. Although teachers can describe their views on a number of issues related to teaching and learning, sometimes there initially is not a clear realization that a fundamental, coherent set of existing beliefs has a powerful impact on practice. In order for meaningful change to take place, it may be necessary for these belief systems, mental models,' or paradigmatic frameworks of learning, assessment, and instruction to be made explicit and open to examination and reflection. Although the resources and time for doing this are often made available, many teachers note how little

opportunity for such activity is provided for in most school settings (Ruiz et al., in press).

The importance of these belief systems was underscored in a recent study by Rueda and Garcia (1992) that examined the issue of belief systems and mental models related to the assessment of literacy with students from limited-English-speaking backgrounds. The study used in-depth interviews, surveys, and classroom observation to probe for understandings and beliefs about a variety of related issues with three groups: credentialed bilingual teachers, bilingual teachers with no formal credential ("waivered" teachers), and special education pull-out teachers (known as "resource specialists" in California).

Rueda and Garcia found that there was much variance both within and among the groups. However, large numbers in each group supported belief systems related to teaching/learning characterized as "reductionistic" (i.e., skills based and transmission oriented). Moreover, with respect to assessment, beliefs were most often reflective of what Cummins (1989) has termed a "legitimization" rather than an "advocacy" orientation. In a smaller subsample of cases in which classroom observations were conducted, beliefs and practices corresponded well (Rueda & Garcia, 1992). Interestingly, the districts that participated in this study were comprised primarily of students from linguistically diverse backgrounds and were considered to have progressive educational programs and strong inservice programs. As was found in the OLE work, the beliefs and practices were most often at variance with current theory and research, and this pattern was even more pronounced in the special education group.

One conclusion drawn from the OLE project is that the formal academic, theoretical models of learning (e.g., Poplin, 1988a, 1988b) do not adequately describe the models or folk theories used in everyday practice. While the formal theories normally presented in college courses and teacher training programs represent well-organized, logically derived, comprehensive, coherent frameworks, everyday folk theories tend to be much more eclectic and situational, representing mixes of various perspectives. While this mixture of clashing perspectives is often highly unsettling to researchers and theoreticians, it appears to represent a sensible adaptation for many teachers given the everyday activity settings in which they operate.

INSTITUTIONAL CONSTRAINTS IN EVERYDAY ACTIVITY SETTINGS

Previous work in classrooms has led to an awareness of the heavy and often competing demands placed on teachers and students (Rueda & Garcia, 1992). These often take the form of such activities as filling out forms, dealing with students being pulled out for various reasons, or arranging for testing. Often, these demands operate in ways that diminish the educational goals of the classroom or otherwise derail what might be considered the best course of action for a given student. These institutional constraints were well described by Mehan, Hertweck, and Miehls (1986) in their study of the special education referral and assessment process. They included factors such as the categorically based eligibility system that permeates special education at the level of prescribed testing, reporting, and placement procedures, as well as funding availability and priorities. These factors often resulted in decision making that was only tangentially related to the characteristics of a given child; rather, the institutional constraints made what would otherwise appear to be illogical or even harmful decisions seem sensible (Mehan et al., 1986).

The classic example of this phenomenon in practice is found in a report by Wang and Reynolds (1985). These authors described attempts to implement a special education program where assessment and placement practices were altered consistent with recent reform efforts to mainstream special education students to the greatest extent possible (Wang & Birch, 1984). "Program A" was designed to meet the needs of both regular and special education students in regular classes by modifying conditions in the learning environment. "Special" staff were moved into the mainstream classrooms along with the special education students. The role of the special education staff was redefined so they were able to provide diagnostic services, intensive instruc-

tion required by some students, and consultation services to regular education teachers and parents. Amazingly, whereas approximately 15% of the students enrolled in the classes in the project previously had been placed full time in special education classes, this project resulted in no pull-out programming, and categorical distinctions were eliminated. The results demonstrated 1-year gains in *both* the special education students *and* their classmates with disabilities in general education classes, while control students averaged only 6 months of gain. Additional positive behavior changes led school staff to recommend decertification of about 30% of the students with disabilities, in contrast to the prevailing district average of only 3%.

These positive results at the end of 1 year resulted in strong recommendations by administrators and instructional staff for continuation of the program. In spite of this, the local school board decided to discontinue the program. The decision was based on economic considerations fostered by applicable eligibility criteria—the very type of institutional constraints described by Mehan and colleagues (1986). Specifically, full-time mainstreamed students were not eligible for reimbursable expenses; such reimbursement for special help could only be provided if students had at least a part-time special education placement. Rather than forfeit such reimbursement, the board opted to return the students to more restrictive settings and discontinue the program.

Stories such as this are legion. Teachers find themselves being required to engage in activities over which they feel they have little control and which may be at odds with decisions they would otherwise make. Often the prevailing practice has been to institute reform by way of top-down policy mandates, with minimal training, long-term follow-up, support, or feedback provided to individual teachers (Cuban, 1990). In these types of reform efforts, perhaps the most critical link in the reform loop—teachers and the everyday demands they face in their classrooms—is largely bypassed. As might be expected, changes within the classroom either fail to materialize or are short lived.

CONCLUSION

It is clear that the current atmosphere has created a context in which examination of the foundations of assessment and instructional practices is desirable and necessary. What the analysis presented here suggests about the reform process is that traditional daylong inservice or other short-term, top-down training exercises are not sufficient to support long-term change. Moreover, the existing institutional constraints in which classroom practice is immersed need to be accounted for in the design and implementation of reform. This represents a significant departure from the common dissemination and training efforts found in most educational settings. As some have suggested, reform is embedded in cultural settings that must be accounted for if significant change is to occur (Welch, 1989). Clearly, school represents a distinct type of cultural setting that needs more attention.

Reform is not a unitary or a short-term process, and it holds different meanings for different teachers. In contrast to what appears to be assumed in many reform efforts, it cannot be accomplished effectively by administrative fiat or brief inservice training sessions. Yet, in most school districts, the preferred approach for adopting educational innovations is to expose teachers to a short-term training experience, often in a group inservice format, and then expect them to implement change with no feedback or long-term support. The underlying assumption is that change is an all-or-none, linear, unidirectional process that is accomplished individually. In contrast, change can be viewed as a gradual, nonlinear process that is accomplished only with carefully structured social supports. More investigation of the complexity of teacher change and of factors that inhibit or facilitate fundamental change is clearly warranted.

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Controllable Factors in Recruitment of Minority and Nonminority Individuals for Doctoral Study in Special Education

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For over a decade, supply and demand for special education faculty in institutions of higher education (IHEs) has been a nationwide dilemma. There has been growing evidence that the number of doctoral-level special education faculty members able to prepare personnel to serve students with disabilities may be insufficient to meet future needs (e.g., Sindelar, Buck, Carpenter, & Watanabe, 1993; Tawney & DeHaas-Warner, 1993). Central to the issue is the symbiotic relationship among teachers, graduate students, and college of education faculty (Smith & Lovett, 1987). For example, the pool of faculty members is affected by the pool of individuals seeking advanced graduate degrees. In like manner, the potential pool of advanced graduate students is affected by the number of certified teachers. Thus, the number of teachers can affect the recruitment pool, thereby affecting the supply of new higher education faculty members. Nowhere is the impact of this symbiotic relationship more evident than in the area of recruiting individuals from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds for leadership positions in IHEs.

SHIFTING POPULATIONS

Given the expected 14% increase in the public school population over the decade of the 1990s (National Center for Education Statistics, 1992), it is reasonable to predict a concomitant increase in the number of students with disabilities and the demand for teachers to provide them services. The type of demand varies, however, with emphasis in the field (e.g., transition, inclusion) and geographic location (some areas report actual surpluses of teachers for students with mild to moderate needs). Thus, although special education personnel shortages exist, the nature of these shortages varies greatly (Smith-Davis & Billingsley, 1993). However, two needs appear fairly stable, needs for greater numbers of minority teachers and for those prepared to teach students with limited English proficiency.

The need for personnel from traditionally underrepresented groups has been emerging in several states and larger school districts for some time (National CSPD Collaboration Institute, 1992). Projections indicate that by the start of the next century one third of the students in the United States will be from CLD backgrounds. However, if current trends continue 95% of their teachers will be white (Education Commission of the States, 1990). Functionally, this means that of approximately 40 teachers whom the average 21st century student will encounter during elementary and secondary school, only 2 will be from CLD populations (Hill, Carjuzaa, Aramburo, &

Baca, 1993). Given the expanding diversity of the U.S. population, it is critical that every child be exposed to teachers from CLD backgrounds. This is true for white students, who, if they are to be effective participants in a multicultural society, must understand many dimensions of diversity. It is also true for students from CLD backgrounds, who are entitled to teachers who are role models and who are sensitive to cultural differences (Hill et al., 1993).

A related concern is that students who have limited English proficiency (LEP) are increasingly dispersed across urban and rural communities (Yates & Ortiz, 1991), resulting in a concomitant need for special education programs to serve more students who have LEP. Given the potential for academic failure of students with LEP who also have disabilities (Garcia & Malkin, 1993), the exigency grows for training programs to prepare bilingual teachers who can address the needs of the expanding population of students with LEP in special education (Baca & Amato, 1989).

THE CHALLENGE

To meet the personnel crisis both in number of preservice teachers and in representation of CLD individuals in the teaching force, IHE leadership personnel are being called on to prepare more preservice professionals and to recruit more CLD individuals into all levels of the profession. The latter is a daunting task, given the many points along the educational pipeline at which CLD individuals who are potential teachers and potential doctoral students might be rerouted. It has been reported that the most critical factor in the underrepresentation of Chicanos, Puerto Ricans, and Native Americans as students in IHEs is their high attrition rate from secondary school (Commission on the Higher Education of Minorities, 1982). Yet, in spite of high attrition rates, the increased number of students from CLD backgrounds in K through 12 programs has resulted in an increased number of high school graduates among this population. Unfortunately, any optimism that more CLD high school graduates may result in more CLD college students must be tempered by the fact that few will actually obtain a baccalaureate, a master's degree, or certification (Hill et al., 1993).

When one considers the general need in IHEs for leadership personnel and the specific need for greater numbers of CLD faculty, the task of recruiting qualified CLD individuals for doctoral study appears formidable. Proactive student recruitment is expensive. Especially during times of reduced funding, informed and efficient recruitment efforts are essential. Yet consultation of professional literature for information on recruitment of individuals from CLD backgrounds into graduate study produces little empirical data specific to education or special education. Indeed much of the empirical literature (e.g., Nettles, 1990; Williamson & Fenske, 1990) focuses on general demographic characteristics of, or retention issues for, CLD doctoral students across disciplines such as the humanities, physical sciences, and engineering. For example, these studies identify demographic characteristics such as education level of parents and marital status as being correlated with retention in doctoral programs. However, CLD individuals in IHEs typically cite three categories of variables as major barriers to higher education: financial concerns, academic preparation, and psychosocial concerns (Wright, 1987).

Financial concerns include having sufficient monetary resources to both attend graduate school and meet financial obligations associated with adult responsibilities. Unlike disciplines in which graduate study immediately follows undergraduate program completion, doctoral-level special education tends to attract older persons who have incurred family responsibilities, making it difficult to afford advanced study (Sindelar & Taylor, 1988).

Academic preparation may also be a barrier to advanced study. For instance, doctoral training generally emphasizes demonstrating research capability. Some capable individuals from CLD backgrounds may not pursue an advanced degree because they lack confidence in their preparation in research-related areas (e.g., statistics, research design, and technical writing). Because master's-level programs typically do not require students to become proficient in research skills (Calder, Justen, & Waldrop, 1986; Rousseau, Shores, Hasselbring, & Cunningham, 1984), this lack of confidence may be well founded.

For many CLD persons, other deterrents to pursuing a terminal degree may relate to social

and interpersonal factors. Opportunities to interact with experienced, caring individuals who provide professional feedback and personal support can be crucial. Additionally, the ethnic make-up of the community in which an institution is located may be important.

One can reasonably assume that financial, academic, or psychosocial variables may influence special education graduate study and should be considered when designing recruitment programs. However, the specific influence of these variables on a CLD individual's decision to pursue doctoral study remains unverified by empirical study. Given the paucity of research on useful information to assist recruitment of individuals from CLD groups for graduate study, IHE programs are left to develop recruitment plans without guidance from empirical data.

THE SOLUTION

A first step in development of empirically guided recruitment plans is identification of factors that influence an individual's decision to pursue doctoral study and that are controllable, to some degree, by the institution. Knowing the importance of various controllable factors would help IHEs maximize the effectiveness and efficiency of recruitment activities. For example, if potential students are strongly influenced by a program's distance from home, recruitment efforts might be most efficient if focused on locations within a certain geographic range of the recruiting institution. Or, if unable to offer a full range of inducements (e.g., fellowships, tuition, moving expenses), an institution might best be served by directing limited resources toward those variables documented as being most highly valued by the target population.

The purpose of the study described on the following pages was twofold: first, to locate CLD and white individuals in the special education *pipeline* to determine what controllable factors were most likely to influence their decision to pursue doctoral study in special education; second, to determine whether or not there were differences in the value placed on these factors by CLD and white individuals. To accomplish this, three questions were formulated:

1. What expectations for doctoral study do potential doctoral students in special education have?
2. What factors and categories of factors do potential doctoral students in special education rate as most influential?
3. Do results obtained from CLD individuals differ significantly from those obtained from white individuals?

METHOD

Instrumentation

Potential questionnaire items were developed from lists generated while reviewing existing literature (opinion and empirical) on recruitment and retention. The researchers, based on personal experiences, then included additional factors thought to be important. Factors were grouped within eight categories: expectations for doctoral study, program locale, general program features, program funding opportunities, program professional opportunities, program faculty and students, institutional climate and resources, and academic preparedness.

The nature of an item dictated the type of response. For example, some items required a short fill-in-the-blank, check mark, or *yes* or *no* response. Most items, however, required respondents to rate, on a scale of 1 to 4, the influence factors within a category would have on their decision to pursue doctoral study. Ratings of 1 and 2 indicated that a factor would have *no* and *minimal* influence; ratings of 3 and 4 indicated that the factor would influence a decision *to some extent or greatly*. The survey also contained an item in which respondents were asked to identify, from among all survey items, the five factors that would have the greatest influence on a decision to pursue doctoral study. A section requesting general demographic information was also included. Prior to dissemination, the questionnaire was pilot tested with master's students at the researchers' institution and revisions were made. This process resulted in a 6-page, 69-item survey.

Sampling

The target population for the study was all CLD individuals (i.e., African American, American Indian, Asian American, Hispanic

American, and other) who possessed a master's degree in special education or were working on one at the time of the study and their white cohorts. Because there was no directory or databank of such individuals and because it was desirable to reach as many CLD individuals as possible, two strategies for soliciting survey respondents were implemented: direct contact and use of intermediaries.

The first strategy involved disseminating surveys directly to likely individuals at conferences during the 1992–1993 academic year. The researchers and their colleagues took with them to various special education conferences survey materials and postage-paid return envelopes. Surveys were given directly to persons willing to complete and return the form or share it with a colleague, and/or were left on tables in common areas of the conferences for interested individuals. This procedure resulted in the return of 27 surveys.

The second strategy involved identifying contact persons at U.S. IHEs that offer master's degrees in special education and soliciting their assistance in dissemination. First, researchers reviewed programs in the *Peterson's Guide to Graduate Programs in Business, Education, Health, and Law* (1993) as well as a list of programs from The Council for Exceptional Children to identify master's programs with at least one CLD student. A total of 145 programs were identified through this process. Attempts were then made by telephone to reach a contact person in each program and solicit his or her assistance in acting as an intermediary. Telephone contact with 94 individuals resulted in identification of 14 programs that had no CLD students enrolled. Fifty-one individuals with whom telephone contact was not achieved were subsequently contacted by mail. All 139 individuals contacted by telephone or mail were supplied with three surveys, letters of explanation, and postage-paid return envelopes and were asked to disseminate these to two CLD and one nonminority master's student in special education. As a result of this procedure, 87 surveys representing 38 institutions were returned. Data from the 114 surveys returned were coded and analyzed using frequencies, means, modes, correlations, and *t*-tests. An alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical tests.

RESULTS

Demographics and Expectations for Doctoral Study

Survey responses were analyzed for 114 individuals: 63 CLD persons and 48 white persons (3 individuals did not indicate their ethnicity). Of the respondents, 103 reported their age, which ranged from 21 to 54 years (M = 35). Marital status was reported by 109 individuals, 58% of whom were married, 39% single, and 4% divorced. Of the 55 respondents who reported having children, 67% had more than one child. This was the only demographic variable for which a significant difference (p = .040) between white and CLD respondents was found: 77% of the CLD respondents had children, compared to 50% of white respondents. Additionally, twice as many CLD as white respondents had more than one child.

An undergraduate degree was the highest level of education attained by approximately 49% of the 108 individuals responding to this item; 51% had completed a master's. Of the 99 individuals who reported their current work setting: 66% worked in public schools, primarily as teachers, and 8% were employed as IHE instructors or supervisors. Of the 81 persons who described the length of their current employment, 70% had 1 to 5 years of experience in their current position, with a range of 1 to 29 years and a mean of 5.3 years. Of the 98 respondents who reported their salary range, 27% earned less than $16,000 per year; 27% earned $16,000 to $24,000; 31% earned $25,000 to $35,000; 12% earned $36,000 to $44,000; and 4% earned $45,000 or more.

Altogether, 105 individuals indicated their current academic involvement. Of these, 93% said they were currently either part- or full-time students. Of the 104 persons who reported their employment goal for doctoral study, employment in an IHE was selected by 61% and employment in public or private school administration was selected by 30%. Of the 91 respondents who indicated their primary motivation for seeking a doctorate, 62% cited a desire to influence the field of education. Improvement of earnings, attainment of prestige and professional stature associated with a doctorate, and attainment of the lifestyle they associate with working in an IHE were the pri-

mary motivation of 13%, 11%, and 9% of these respondents, respectively.

For the first questionnaire category, *expectations for doctoral study*, respondents were asked to provide information regarding what they thought a doctoral program would involve and what strategies they would use to identify opportunities for doctoral study. Of the 104 respondents to this item, 70% indicated that they expected a doctoral program to take 2 or 3 years to complete (33% and 37% respectively). The range of expected program length was 1 to 5 years, with a modal response of 3 years. Fourteen respondents expected a program to take 5 years; 1 expected full-time study to take less than 2 years.

Of 114 respondents, 92% expected a doctoral program to consist primarily of research; 76% expected coursework to be a primary focus. Fewer expected a program to consist primarily of teaching and technical writing (58% and 47% respectively). There was a significant difference between the number of CLD and white respondents who expected a doctoral program to consist primarily of research; significantly more white than CLD respondents had this expectation (100% to 86% respectively; $p = .007$). Of the 113 persons indicating how doctoral-level training might compare with a master's-level program, 13% believed a doctoral program would not be similar to their master's training, 66% expected doctoral study to be *somewhat* similar, and 20% expected doctoral study to be *very similar*.

Table 1 sequences, from high to low, respondents' selection of sources for information on doctoral programs. Although the percentages differ, the order of sources selected was the same for CLD and white respondents. An overwhelming majority of the 114 respondents (89%) indicated previous or current faculty as the source from which they would seek information regarding doctoral opportunities; newspapers were neglected by an almost equal number (91%). Other venues specified by respondents included professional colleagues, friends, and graduates or current doctoral students in a program being considered.

Seventy-one percent of 114 respondents expected to investigate three to five doctoral programs before making a final decision, and 90% expressed a desire to meet with prospective program faculty and doctoral students prior to a decision. Significantly more white than CLD respondents expressed this desire (98% to 85%, respectively; $p = .02$).

Most and Least Influential Categories

Respondents were asked to rate on a scale of 1 to 4 the influence that factors specified within each of the remaining seven categories would have on their decision to pursue doctoral study. Mean influence ratings for all factors in a category were combined to determine the relative influence of individual categories. Table 2 presents results of these combined factor ratings for all respondents and for CLD and white respondents separately.

Of all the categories, *general program features* and *funding opportunities* achieved the highest combined influence ratings, 3.53 and 3.06 respectively. The categories *institutional climate/resources* and *program locale* were the least influential. Significant differences were noted between the combined factor ratings of CLD individuals and white respondents for the categories *funding opportunities*, *program faculty and students*, and *institutional climate/resources*. Thus, on average, CLD respondents rated factors within these categories significantly higher than did white respondents.

Most and Least Influential Factors

Following are findings regarding individual factor ratings. Only the most and least influential factors in each category and any statistically significant differences between ratings of CLD and white respondents are highlighted. Table 3 presents the categories from most to least influential, as well as a most to least influential sequence of all factors *within* each category.

General Program Features. Within this category, cost was rated as only slightly more influential than how long it might take to complete a program. There was no significant difference between CLD and white respondents' ratings of this item.

TABLE 1
Sources Selected for Information About Doctoral Opportunities

Information Source	*Percent of Respondents* (N = *114*)
Previous/current faculty advisors	89
Professional journals	59
Recruitment offices or career fairs at local institutions	52
Chronicle of Higher Education	42
Other sources	28
Newspapers	9

TABLE 2
Comparison of Combined Factor Ratings for Questionnaire Categories

Categories	*All Respondents* (N = *114*)	*CLD Respondents* (n = *63*)	*White Respondents* (n = *48*)
General program features	3.53 (n = 112)	3.55 (n = 62)	3.53 (n = 47)
Funding opportunities	3.06 (n = 111)	3.15[a] (n = 61)	2.94 (n = 47)
Professional opportunities	3.00 (n = 113)	2.95 (n = 62)	3.06 (n = 48)
Academic preparation	2.74 (n = 104)	2.70 (n = 57)	2.79 (n = 44)
Program faculty and students	2.73 (n = 113)	2.89[b] (n = 62)	2.51 (n = 48)
Institutional climate/resources	2.47 (n = 109)	2.61[c] (n = 61)	2.30 (n = 45)
Program locale	2.47 (n = 107)	2.57 (n = 57)	2.38 (n = 47)

[a] p = .051
[b] p = .001
[c] p = .005

TABLE 3
Comparison of Category and Factor Influence for Minority and White Respondents

Category/Factor	*Overall Mean*	*Minority Mean*	*White Mean*
General program features	3.53	3.55	3.53
Cost	3.62	3.65	3.62
Estimated time to complete program	3.44	3.45	3.46
Funding opportunities	3.06	3.15	2.94
Program support for tuition[a]	3.70	3.81	3.58
Program support for living expenses[a]	3.39	3.54	3.19
Program support for books[a]	3.16	3.40	2.85
Support for student research	2.92	2.89	2.92
Medical insurance for self/dependents	2.90	2.94	2.85
Moving expenses	2.72	2.85	2.60
Support for travel to conferences	2.68	2.66	2.69
Professional opportunities	3.00	2.95	3.06
Mentored by a faculty member	3.40	3.32	3.50
Design/implement own research	3.10	3.07	3.08
Involvement in faculty research	3.05	2.95	3.15
College/university teaching	2.99	2.94	3.10
Involvement in writing for publication	2.89	2.79	2.98
Conference presentations	2.59	2.65	2.54
Academic preparation	2.74	2.70	2.79
Current competence in professional writing	2.81	2.81	2.80
Current competence in research design	2.76	2.72	2.78
Current competence in statistics	2.63	2.54	2.77
Program faculty and students	2.73	2.89	2.51
Reputation of the department	3.54	3.55	3.52
Reputation of the institution	3.38	3.47	3.27
Faculty/doctoral student ratio	2.82	2.69	2.94
Number of CLD students in program[a]	2.24	2.65	1.73
Number of CLD faculty in department[a]	2.18	2.65	1.63

(Continued on next page)

TABLE 3
(Continued)

Category/Factor	*Overall Mean*	*Minority Mean*	*White Mean*
Institutional climate/resources	2.47	2.60	2.30
Breadth/scope of library holdings	3.25	3.18	3.33
Availability/access to computer resources	3.11	3.07	3.15
Availability of services for nontraditional students	2.56	2.69	2.41
Availability of services for CLD students[a]	2.26	2.81	1.54
Presence of CLD organizations on campus[a]	1.83	2.15	1.41
Availability of child-care services on campus	1.80	1.74	1.89
Program locale	2.47	2.54	2.38
Distance of program from family/home	3.29	3.24	3.40
Ethnic diversity of community where program is located[a]	2.41	2.72	2.06
Demographic category of city where program is located	2.40	2.40	2.45
Climate/weather in area where program is located[a]	2.14	2.33	1.92
Size of city/town where program is located	2.11	2.13	2.09

[a] $p = < .05$

Program Funding Opportunities. Support for *tuition* and *living expenses* (e.g., assistantships, fellowships) were the most highly influential factors within this category for both CLD and white respondents. In addition, CLD respondents rated support for living expenses significantly higher than did white respondents ($p = .034$). Of the CLD respondents who rated this factor, 73% indicated an influence rating of 4, as compared to 45% of whites. Likewise, CLD respondents rated *support for books* as significantly more influential than did white respondents ($p = .001$): 55% of CLD respondents rated this factor as one that "would greatly influence" their decision, as compared to 31% of white respondents who gave the item a similar rating.

Support for moving expenses incurred to pursue doctoral study was rated overall as the least influential factor under funding opportunities. However, ratings on this factor were correlated with respondent ethnicity; CLD respondents rated this item as more influential than white respondents, although the difference was not statistically significant.

Program Professional Opportunities. Both CLD and white respondents rated *opportunity to be mentored by a faculty member* as the professional opportunity factor that would most influence their decision to pursue doctoral training. White respondents considered this factor to have somewhat more influence on their decision than did CLD respondents, although the difference was not statistically significant. Opportunities to make conference presentations and to be involved in writing for publication were rated by CLD and white respondents as the least influential factors in this category.

Academic Preparedness. *Current competence in professional writing* was rated by both CLD and white respondents as the factor in this category having the most influence on a decision regarding doctoral study. However, mean ratings for current competence in writing, research design, and statistics did not indicate that these factors would greatly influence the decision to pursue a doctorate.

In addition to being asked to rate the influence that competence in writing, research design, and statistics would have on a decision to pursue doctoral training, respondents who assigned influence ratings of 3 or 4 to these factors were asked to also evaluate their preparation in these areas. Of these, 60% to 67% of CLD respondents and 60% to 73% of white respondents evaluated their preparation in one or more of the areas. Table 4 displays the results of these self-assessments. Similarity was found between CLD and white respondents' judgments in two of the three areas specified: writing and research design. For example, 60% of CLD respondents felt their preparation in technical writing was inadequate; approximately the same percentage of white respondents felt likewise. CLD respondents were equally divided regarding their preparation in research design: 51% rated it adequate; 49% rated in inadequate. White respondents made similar assessments: 44% felt they had adequate preparation; 53% felt their preparation in this area was inadequate. However, CLD and white respondents differed significantly in assessment of their statistical preparation. Whereas CLD respondents were evenly split in their ratings (i.e., 50% felt adequately prepared; 50% did not), the majority of white respondents (74%) rated their preparation in statistics as adequate.

Program Faculty and Students. According to mean ratings, the most influential factor in this category was *reputation of the department* in which a program is located. For both CLD and white respondents, this factor ranked midway between influencing "to some extent" and influencing "greatly" their decision to pursue a doctorate. *Number of minority faculty in department* achieved the lowest overall mean rating (2.18) for factors in this category, but the mean rating for this factor was significantly higher for CLD respondents than for white respondents. Of the CLD respondents, 27% indicated that this item would "greatly" influence their decision as compared to 2% of whites; whereas 24% of CLD respondents reported that it would influence their decision "to some extent" as compared to 4% of whites. Likewise, *number of minority students in program* achieved a significantly higher mean rating from CLD respondents: 27% of CLD respondents, but only 2% of white respondents, indicated that this factor would influence them "greatly"; 27% and 15% of CLD and white respondents, respectively, indicated this factor would influence them "to some extent."

Institutional Climate and Resources. The highest-rated factors in this category were *breadth/scope of library holdings* and *availability/access to computer resources. Availability of child-care services on campus* was the lowest-rated factor in this category. No significant differences were found between CLD and white respondents' ratings for these factors. However, significant ratings differences were found for two other factors in this category: *availability of services for minority students* and *presence of minority student organizations on campus*. CLD respondents assigned these factors significantly higher ratings than those assigned by white respondents ($p = .000$).

Program Locale. The *distance of a program from home or family* was the most influential factor in this category. Of 111 respondents to this item, 63 (57%) indicated that distance would greatly influence their decision to seek doctoral study. Eighty-three respondents indicated the maximum distance they would consider traveling for doctoral work. The range of distance indicated was 1 to 500 miles, with a mean of 99 miles and a mode of 50 miles.

Respondents overall rated *size of the city or town* and *climate/weather* in the area where a program was located as the least influential factors in this category. However, the *climate/weather* held significantly greater influence for CLD respondents than for white respondents ($p = .025$). Overall, respondents were fairly evenly divided regarding the degree of influence a city or town's demographic classification would have and

TABLE 4
Respondents' Assessment Regarding Adequacy of Their Preparation for Doctoral Studies

Area	*CLD Respondents* ($N = 63$)	*White Respondents* ($N = 48$)
Technical writing	$n = 42$	$n = 29$
Adequate	14 (40%)	12 (41%)
Inadequate	25 (60%)	17 (59%)
Research design	$n = 41$	$n = 34$
Adequate	21 (51%)	15 (44%)
Inadequate	20 (49%)	18 (53%)
Statistics	$n = 38$	$n = 35$
Adequate	19 (50%)	26 (74%)
Inadequate	19 (50%)	9 (26%)

N = Total number in group.
n = Number of respondents who ranked adequacy of their preparedness for doctoral study.

regarding the influence a community's ethnic diversity would have on their decision. Once again, although the factor *community ethnic diversity* was not rated highly overall, this factor did have significantly greater influence for CLD respondents than for white respondents ($p = .001$).

Respondents who assigned specific locale factors an influence rating of 3 or 4 were asked to provide additional information regarding their particular locale-related preferences. Of those respondents expressing a preference about demographic setting and community diversity, 44% preferred a suburban setting, 34% preferred an urban setting, and 21% preferred a rural setting; 90% preferred an ethnically diverse community.

Overall Most Influential Factors

Having rated the influence of numerous factors, respondents were asked to identify the five that would have the greatest influence on their decision to pursue doctoral study. These top factors, as ranked by minority and white respondents, are presented in Table 5.

Monies for *tuition* and *overall cost of the program* were ranked by both CLD and white respondents as the two *most* influential factors. In addition, much similarity was found between both groups of respondents with regard to identification of several other influential factors. For example, a determination of the 10 individual factors rated most highly by CLD respondents and by white respondents yielded a list of only 11 items. In other words, nine factors were cited by both CLD and white respondents as likely to influence their decision "greatly" or "to some extent." Only two of the most highly rated factors did not appear on both lists: *support for books* (ranked 7 by minorities) and *availability of computer resources* (ranked 10 by whites). Table 5 presents the 10 factors rated as most influential by CLD and white respondents.

DISCUSSION

The results of this study support the contention that economic, academic, and psychosocial variables influence the pursuit of doctoral study and may, as Wright (1987) indicated, pose particular barriers for CLD individuals. Additionally, there are expectation and demographic factors that must be considered. In the following section, results are summarized and discussed with regard to the economic, academic, and psychosocial implications for faculty recruitment efforts and the creation of recruit-

TABLE 5
Factors Rated by Minority and White Respondents as Most Influential

Factor	*Minority Rank*	*White Rank*
Provision of tuition	1	2
Overall cost of the program	2	1
Reputation of the department	3	3
Living expenses	4	9
Reputation of the institution	5	8
Time required to complete program	6	5
Support for books	7	(15)
Mentoring by faculty member	8	4
Distance from home/family	9	6
Breadth of library holdings	10	7
Availability of computer resources	(11)	10

ment material. Table 6 translates these implications into recommendations for student recruitment into special education doctoral programs.

Expectations for Doctoral Study

Most respondents had fairly realistic expectations regarding full-time doctoral study and potentially effective strategies for selecting a program. The majority expected full-time training to take 2 to 3 years, be somewhat similar to their master's training, and consist primarily of research, coursework, and teaching. They favored previous or current faculty advisors as a major source for securing information about doctoral opportunities, would probably investigate three to five programs before making a selection, and most likely would want to meet the faculty and students in a program being considered. Although many individuals would seek a doctorate with hopes of working in school administration, the predominant motivation for most was to seek a doctorate in order to work in an institution of higher education and influence the field.

In order to enhance the probability of success of recruitment efforts, the demographics and expectations of potential students should be addressed via comprehensive program description. For example, program recruitment materials should contain detailed information regarding program requirements and composition, including expectations for involvement in a variety of professional development activities such as teaching and technical writing, as well as coursework and research. CLD individuals, in particular, may need information regarding research expectations in doctoral programs.

Delegation of recruitment activities to a single individual may not be conducive to efficient and successful outcomes. Doctoral student recruitment is an activity in which individual faculty members play a crucial role. Given that most prospective students may be inclined to seek doctoral program information from a faculty advisor, all faculty members should be willing and prepared to provide information about doctoral study, whether or not their own department offers the doctorate. Those seeking to recruit students should contact faculty advisors in their own and other IHEs as a major recruitment strategy.

Face-to-face interviews or meetings with prospective students should be routine. These

TABLE 6
Recommendations for Recruitment

Faculty should:

- As a department, assume responsibility for recruitment.
- Utilize contact with faculty advisors in their own and other IHEs as a recruitment strategy.
- Pursue recruitment within reasonable geographic location of the institution.
- Be available for interviews with prospective students.
- Enable prospective students to meet with current students.
- Be willing to mentor students.
- Provide financial assistance for tuition, living expenses, and books.
- Create an atmosphere in which diversity is valued and nurtured.

Program literature should:

- Provide information on program content and requirements.
- Describe expectations for involvement in professional development activities.
- Emphasize faculty, departmental, and institutional reputations.
- Describe nonmonetary quality indicators (library holdings, computer resources, etc.).
- Describe mentorship support.
- Describe academic support available from the program.
- Indicate family housing costs in local and surrounding communities.
- Indicate the viability of and potential for outside employment (consultancies, workshops, etc.).
- Indicate the availability and location of low-cost family medical care and child care.
- Describe the ethnic makeup of local and surrounding communities.
- Provide adequate information regarding available commuting options, costs, and time.
- Describe CLD services in the institution and community.

contacts should include current program students as well as faculty members. Arrangements that allow for one-to-one conversation with faculty and current students can provide an opportunity for prospective students to ask questions and express concerns they might be uncomfortable raising in group situations. Considerations of this kind may be especially appreciated by individuals from CLD backgrounds.

Financial Factors

Study demographics and factor ratings confirmed the findings of Sindelar and Taylor (1988) that special education doctoral training tends to draw older individuals who are likely to have incurred family responsibilities and financial obligations. Program cost and tuition support appeared to be the most powerful pro-

gram-selection determinants. Not surprisingly, 4 of the 10 most influential factors, overall, reflected financial concerns. For CLD individuals, in particular, economics may pose a significant barrier to doctoral training. For example, although support for tuition and living expenses was important to both groups, perhaps because CLD respondents were more apt to be parents and to have more than one child, they assigned significantly greater influence to these factors.

Despite the influence of financial considerations, factor ratings also indicated that potential students are concerned about factors that influence the quality of their doctoral training. For example, only tuition support and program cost received a higher overall influence rating than reputation of the department in which a program is located. Influence ratings for reputation of the institution, library holdings, and computer resources provide evidence that individuals considering doctoral training would, in addition to seeking financial support, seek programs whose reputations and institutional resources indicate the availability of high-quality training.

Given the economic circumstances of the country and demographic characteristics of prospective doctoral students (e.g., age, family responsibilities, current earning power), programs intent on recruiting such students must provide as much financial assistance as possible. Influence ratings for the category *funding opportunities* suggest that, minimally, programs should provide financial assistance to defray the cost of tuition and living expenses. Additionally, programs should endeavor to provide support for other expenses indicated in Table 3. Support for books may be especially important for CLD individuals.

The types of financial support a program is capable of offering should be detailed in recruitment literature and interviews. However, developers of this literature should not overlook the importance of nonmonetary quality indicators. Faculty, departmental, and institutional reputations; library holdings; computer resources; and other positive program-, department-, or institution-specific attributes should be emphasized in recruitment efforts. Some prospective students may choose a program that offers less financial assistance but possesses an outstanding reputation or other noteworthy nonmonetary resources.

Psychosocial Variables

Psychosocial variables related to professional opportunities, institutional climate, and program locale may also influence prospective students' judgment about doctoral program quality. These variables may arbitrate program selection decisions or pose barriers for prospective students. For example, the opportunity to be mentored by a faculty member was one psychosocial variable cited by study respondents as likely to have some influence on their decision to pursue a doctorate. Distance from home and family, a factor related to program location, was another. Finally, respondents' desire to meet faculty and students before committing to a specific program was yet another indicator that psychosocial variables are important in the decision-making process.

Psychosocial variables may have particular implications with regard to recruiting CLD individuals. In the current study, the presence of CLD faculty, students, services, student organizations, and an ethnically diverse community was rated significantly higher in influence by CLD respondents than by white respondents. Although influential, psychosocial variables were less powerful than financial ones. However, for CLD individuals confronted with choosing among institutions that offer comparable financial support, the availability of psychosocial variables might be the determining recruitment factor. Alternatively, CLD individuals lured to programs that offer attractive financial support packages, upon finding themselves without needed psychosocial support, might abandon doctoral study.

The significance of psychosocial variables for effective recruitment is obvious. Doctoral program faculty must be willing to provide ongoing mentorship. This mentorship should involve professional and personal socialization into the field, into the academy, and in some cases into the community. Programs must strive diligently to increase the diversity of their faculty and students and to create a

departmental and institutional atmosphere that demonstrably values and nurtures diversity. The presence of formal and informal mentorship support should be clearly described in program literature.

Some influential factors, such as climate where a program is located or program distance from home, are not alterable. Others, such as the ethnic diversity of the community in which a program is located, may not be amenable to direct or speedy manipulation. Nevertheless, the efficacy of recruitment efforts can be enhanced if these factors are kept in mind. For instance, a program might consider focusing its major recruitment efforts on a specific geographic area. Additionally, program information might include descriptions of the ethnic makeup of the local and surrounding communities and an estimation of time and cost of travel to areas targeted for recruitment. Certainly, descriptions of any campus and community organizations (e.g., churches) that focus on the needs of CLD individuals should also be provided.

Academic Variables

Study of respondents' feedback regarding their expectations for doctoral program content; their preparation in professional writing, research design, and statistics; and their current competence in these areas suggests that many prospective doctoral students may be insufficiently prepared in some critical areas and indeed may be underestimating the importance of others in doctoral training. For example, less than half of the entire respondent pool expected technical writing to constitute a primary component of doctoral study. Perhaps as a consequence, mean influence ratings for this area were not particularly high. Nevertheless, most respondents felt that their current competence in writing would influence their decision to pursue a doctorate at least "to some extent," and, of those who described their preparation in technical writing, approximately 60% judged it inadequate. The gravity of these responses regarding writing expectations and preparation is readily apparent when one considers the importance of writing proficiency in successfully negotiating major hurdles associated with doctoral training (e.g., written competency exams, dissertation).

Research was expected by virtually all respondents to constitute a primary aspect of doctoral training. Again, although group means did not indicate that competence in research and statistics would "greatly" influence a decision to pursue doctoral training, individual ratings indicated that competence in these areas would have influence on the majority of respondents. In correspondence with the contention of Rousseau and colleagues (1984) and Calder and colleagues (1986) that master's programs typically do not require students to become proficient in research skills, half of all those who described their preparation in research design judged it to be inadequate. In addition, 50% of CLD individuals who described their preparation in statistics felt that it, too, was inadequate. Thus, it appears that many respondents' assessments of their preparation in research design and statistics are not commensurate with their expectation about the primary role research plays in pursuing a doctorate.

The rigors of doctoral training, coupled with prospective students' unreadiness to undergo them due to inaccurate expectations or inadequate academic preparation, require that recruitment efforts be linked to doctoral program planning. Academic support may be required for many students in writing and research. Knowledge about research expectations and assistance in statistics may be particularly important for CLD students. Because university academic support may not be geared to doctoral students, those who need academic assistance may be reluctant to utilize available services. Therefore, individual doctoral programs should provide such support. Support may be built into specific courses, provided via mentorship with a faculty member, or achieved through the use of peer tutors. Faculty members should provide systematic mentoring in research and technical writing, involve students in their research and writing projects, and include tutorial help in support packages. Program literature should describe academic expectations in research and writing and the academic support that will be made available throughout the program.

CONCLUSION

This article provides some empirical support for the influence financial, psychosocial, and academic variables may have in individuals' decision to pursue doctoral study. In addition, it clarifies specific factors that can be manipulated by program faculty in their efforts to recruit doctoral students, particularly those from CLD backgrounds. If special education in our public schools is to be truly responsive to the needs of all children with disabilities, attention to current leadership personnel shortages must actively concern everyone engaged in personnel preparation. Program incorporation of recruitment strategies and materials such as those described in this article may result in more successful efforts to expand the diversity of leadership personnel.

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IN THE ORAL TRADITION

This section of Multiple Voices *capitalizes on the oral tradition common to many cultures. In this tradition, history and cultural values are transmitted from one generation to another by word of mouth. In some cultures, a specific person carries the responsibility of learning the "stories" of the people and telling them on demand and at appropriate events to inform and guide the people. In Alex Haley's* Roots, *he referred to the storyteller as the "griot." Among other cultures, different terms are used.*

"In the Oral Tradition" presents interviews with eminent scholars and community leaders in the education of culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional learners. These "elders" of the education community share their perspectives and prognostications on pertinent issues.

Issues Regarding the Education of African American Exceptional Learners

HELEN BESSENT BYRD

Ruth Winstead Diggs

Oliver Leon Hurley

Frank Wilderson

Helen Bessent Byrd (HBB), Professor, Special Education Department, Norfolk State University, Norfolk, VA, interviewed the elders for this issue of *Multiple Voices*. The interviewees are: Ruth Winstead Diggs, honorably retired founder and department head of the Special Education Department, Norfolk State University, former governor appointee to advisory commissions, and presidential appointee to the President's Committee on Mental Retardation during the Carter administra-

tion; Oliver Leon Hurley, Associate Dean and Director of Teacher Education, Georgia State University, former professor and head of the Special Education Department, and former President of the CEC Division on Mental Retardation and Developmental Disabilities; and Frank Wilderson, Professor of Educational Psychology and Chair, Program in Special Education, and former Assistant Vice Chancellor, University of Minnesota.

HBB: What are the three most serious challenges that the American education system has faced in the education of African American exceptional learners? Please comment upon your selections.

Diggs: In my opinion, the very first one would be being able to accommodate African American exceptional learners in a classroom setting with children from other ethnic groups. Secondly, developing the concept of intercultural education, which respects and advances the cultural pluralism of our society while imparting basic academic concepts. Now this is E. Bernal's concept. Thirdly, since the inception of public education of African American children, there has been a long history of second-class education member service delivery in particular. Facilities have been poor—resources, equipment, materials—and have penalized the curriculum. This is Dr. Orlando Taylor's view. I agree with both of these educators on the challenges that they brought to the fore.

Hurley: One challenge that persists has been the ability to assess the level of cognition given the social background of the person and opportunities for that person to learn whatever is being asked. We have not done a good job of that in this country. I think that this challenge has led to an oversubscription in special education at the lower disability levels and undersubscription at the levels of those who are gifted. Going along with that challenge, however, is a challenge to the African American community to try to figure out why it is that children from other countries, notably Asian countries, can come here and not even speak the language very well yet do better on assessment instruments than our own African American, native-born children do. That's a serious question which has been ignored by many people. There is something instructive in trying to study that.

Another serious challenge in American education is that I don't think the system has ever really believed that African American children can learn. When I say "the system," I include teachers of all races, including African American, white, and others. I'll cycle back to that later when I talk about what I think a good teacher is for these youngsters.

The third challenge that I think the education system has is to overcome the effects of poverty and the effects of anti-intellectualism, almost a *Luddite* mentality that exists among young black kids. If you remember, the Luddites were the ones who used to blow up the machinery in the early days of the Industrial Revolution, because they didn't want to see that kind of progress. It really distresses me when I hear these young people saying, "Why do I need to learn that? That's a white man's knowledge." Well, since when has knowledge been reserved for any race? And especially when they're talking about things such as algebra, which was invented in the Middle East. This is not a special education problem specifically, but is a more general problem, and our exceptional learners are influenced by this kind of attitude if it permeates the community in which they live. It's a powerful and very distressing force. When I find it among college students, it's even more distressing.

Wilderson: A serious challenge is the preparation of teachers who have compassion for children from non-European backgrounds. The African American children would differ in some ways from the mainstream. The teachers should do more than just want to teach these children. Rather, they should feel that it is their calling, that it is their mission to teach this population. The outcomes of the students will be different from those of the children of European backgrounds. That is why it is important that the teachers have compassion.

Another one of the things that challenges us is the need to do more research on group intervention. African American children usually function better in groups. They gain more self-esteem from how they function in their

groups—in family groups, in peer groups, in neighborhood groups. This research should lead to more opportunities for group activities in the school environment. Very often in school settings children are not allowed to function in groups. They find themselves having to work alone. And that is not quite what the African American children are accustomed to doing. Allowing these children to study and work in cooperative learning groups will do two things: (1) It will accommodate the need of the children for more freedom to move around in the classroom and (2) the teachers will see fewer behavior problems and better learning when children are able to move more freely.

The third challenge is for the schools to bring the community into partnerships to facilitate learning. Schools need to become more effective at involving the community in the school experience. Engaging leaders from the church and the community will make the schools more effective because it will entail participation by people who are respected by the African American community. In this way the school will become a more natural extension of their home. Years ago schools were seen as extensions of the African American community. Right now, they don't find that to be the case. The schools will also be more inviting when this close partnership is established and maintained.

HBB: Would you please cite what you perceive to be three of the most promising trends in education in regard to meeting the needs of these learners? You might identify any research or pedagogical paradigms that you see as being effective or having the potential for such.

Hurley: I think one trend that will be very helpful is constructivism. People talk about it as if it's brand new. We were talking about that 30 years ago, so it's not brand new. But it's been given a new name, *constructivism*—the idea that children connect new learning to old learning. It's a very important idea for teachers to remember, so we won't be like the guy who came to work one morning and said, "I taught my dog to talk this morning." And the other person says, "What does your dog say?" "Oh he doesn't say anything. I just taught him to talk."

I think another idea is that you've got to show results, and if you can't show results, then you're not accomplishing anything. I think that trend is showing up in all of our colleges and universities, and that is positive. You no longer can say "I teach kids" without someone asking you, "Well what's your evidence?" I think that's going to be a really positive trend for African American learners.

The third trend I think might have some effect for our African American learners is the work that is being done with persons with severe and profound disabilities. That will yield some insights and techniques that may be helpful. As occurred with behaviorism, it wasn't until Lou Brown and others really started trying to apply it to persons with severe disabilities that its techniques were developed. So I think some of this knowledge transfer to African American exceptional learners may occur within the next 5 or 10 years. We might even develop some new techniques of assessment since they've had to develop some for persons with severe disabilities. There are probably other trends.

Notice I did not say anything about inclusion. Part of the reason why I haven't mentioned inclusion is where these kids come from. They've been kicked out of the regular classroom by the teachers there, and unless there's a lot of change in that regular strand, our children are going to get kicked out again. You know the mainstream isn't doing that great a job educating African American children, period. The exceptional learners among our population may be faring better now than the others. All you have to do is look at major cities. Every major city in this country is in trouble, and the vast majority of their students are African American and Hispanic students. They're in trouble because learning is not happening. Now there are other factors, but that's the mainstream we're talking about.

There are other things the communities need to do. The part that always bothers me has to do with unwed, pregnant teenagers. Teenage mothers, married or unmarried, cannot communicate the heritage. Not only that, they're not communicating any values. So the result is, we have drive-by shootings; we are raising a generation of psychopaths and sociopaths. The problem is not related only to teenage preg-

nancy; there are other factors. Now if the community doesn't do something about that, it's not going to get any better, and schools can't fix it. Amorality is alive and well, and that's too bad. And housing projects will turn out to be one of the biggest mistakes we made in history, because this is where these social problems are concentrated. I'm not trying to paint everybody who lives in a project with one brush, so I am very careful. I hate to even say that. But that's where a lot of this is concentrated, and the mainstream, if we're talking about public schools, is those kids. Where are the able middle-class African American students whose parents are involved? They're in private schools. But at the same time, the African American leaders are not attending to the problem. Too often, in my estimation, they play the victim. What I want to hear is, "Let's do something about this."

Diggs: It appears to me that professionals today are still being seriously challenged to do more effective planning in meeting the needs of African American exceptional learners. Regardless of innovative pedagogical paradigms, the most important trend is the continuing use of those techniques which deal effectively with the motivation of African American exceptional learners. A second trend is defining and recognizing cultural background and its role in the educational process. It really troubles me that the educational and cultural backgrounds of these children are not considered or included in planning for teaching to assist them in learning. We cannot ignore the cultural values of a group of people, and we need to do something about that. I think, too, that recognizing programs and instructional materials that are effective in meeting the needs of African American exceptional learners would be helpful. I think that's important, very important. I cannot understand how teachers can, because children have been labeled exceptional learners, just play games in the classroom to keep them happy so that they will not give the teachers any problems. That is just not right.

Wilderson: All right, I'll pick up right where I left off with the last question. Ecological community intervention is very important. That's a trend that, along with cooperative learning, we need to do more research on so that we can see if it is more effective and can be used more effectively than it has already been used.

Secondly, we are using token economies more now as a way to approach children who have special learning needs. We should continue this strategy but make the reinforcement much more contingent upon the children's working in groups.

The third point that I would make is to cite the trend toward using life space interviewing. The reason is that it is a way to avoid using so much punishment. This will enable us to use less heavyhandedness. We can help children to know themselves better—to know the reasons for their behavior. This will help them to develop much more inner control. The children will get more intrinsic satisfaction from the control of their behavior. I would say that this is a strategy that we should use, and we will find ourselves much farther along the way at the end of this century. As long as we continue to use punishment, children will learn that they can be controlled. But when they begin to take responsibility for their own behavior through life space intervention, they learn that they can control their own behavior.

HBB: What guidance do you give for the preparation of teachers and administrators of African American exceptional learners?

Wilderson: I will expand upon the comments that I made earlier regarding the preparation of teachers by pointing out that we need to do a better job in the selection of those to be trained to serve African American exceptional learners. Teacher training institutions need to do better counseling along the way so that, if trainees or their advisors discover that this is not the profession for them, they can move on. We should not rely on self-selection alone. And we must use effective modes of deselection.

When teachers are prepared, the teacher training institutions should stand behind the teachers all the way, ensuring their success. Preparation of teachers should include more experience in the field. The program must be immersed in the community, working with people. And there ought to be a longer period of internship in the field that provides for more interaction. After graduation, there ought to be

a period of 2 or 3 years before the reins on the novice teacher are released with the assumption that the professional is able to perform independently. We don't do teachers a service by not giving them the support that they need to be effective in that early period. I think that if our teachers are prepared in groups with other professionals—perhaps psychologists, sociologists, social workers, et cetera—they will become more knowledgeable as well.

Diggs: Teacher preparation programs should be designed to sensitize inservice teachers and administrators for the preparation of preservice teachers to do a better job in designing educational programs to meet the special needs of African American exceptional learners. Institutions of higher learning have a significant role to play in upgrading teacher preparation programs, including programs of prevention and service delivery. It just seems that many of the problems that teachers, parents, and community workers face today are being ignored across the country in teacher preparation programs. If these teacher preparation programs don't realize that, then we are the persons who will be shut out in the future.

Hurley: Some years ago they asked me to write an article for *TEASE (Teacher Education and Special Education)*, and I wrote a half page. I was supposed to do teacher education for African American children, and someone else did it for Hispanic and so forth. My half a page said, number one and only, "Change the attitude of the people doing the teaching." If they really believe that the children can learn and they teach according to that belief, then they will take into account where the children are and they will do whatever they can to hook that knowledge to what the children already know and bring them forward. We're back to constructivism. It's an attitude thing. So that one thing that we need to do in teacher training is to make sure that our students work with African American students during their training. I don't mean for student teaching. Student teaching can be anywhere, but I'm talking about during their training. The field experiences they have should be structured in such a way that they spend some time in the African American community, getting to know the students, in the Hispanic community, if you have one, and in the Asian community. There are more than 25 different languages being spoken in some schools today. We're not doing a good job of getting people to be sensitive. I don't believe there's any way we can train anybody to know everything about all of those cultures. What we have to do is to get them to be sensitive to cultural differences and pay attention to them.

As part of their teacher training they should read some books such as Shirley Heath's *Ways with Words*. She collected data in two closed North Carolina communities—one black and one white—during the early years of desegregation in the Piedmont region. The black community's ways with words were not good for school learning. They learned a whole different style. And so the children had a lot of trouble when they got to school. They were asked questions in ways that they had not heard before. And they were being asked to do things that didn't make sense to them given their culture. A simple example: In their culture an adult never asked a child a question to which the adult already knew the answer. What do we do in schools? We ask questions to which we already know the answers. The children never responded. Authorities thought the children were dumb, but the children thought the teacher was dumb. That was just one example, but the schools are full of these kinds of things. What's even more fascinating is that these people lived in rural communities. When they went to the school, neither the black nor the white teachers understood them. So it wasn't just a matter of race. It was a matter of background and education. The white community's learning was different, and it was perfect for school, up to the point where they suddenly had to begin thinking for themselves, and there it fell apart. It's fascinating to read. It is important that our teachers read something like this and begin to get a sensitivity to how language is used. Simply because you ask a child in what way a cat and mouse are alike and he can't answer may say nothing about his intellectual ability. I think teachers need to know important aspects about language. It is the key to everything, in my view.

In my experience the teachers who've been successful teaching African American special learners have certain characteristics. One of these is that they liked the students. They listened to them, they treated them fairly, they

treated them with respect, they liked them as people. Another characteristic is that they believed that the children could learn and they did not make excuses for them. Some of the teachers could even be called mean because they held the children's feet to the fire. One of the things we don't do enough of and train our teachers to do is to listen . . . and hear what the child is saying. Sometimes teaching that lesson that you prepared is not what's important. You know if the geranium dies on the window sill it's time to do something else, right? That is really critical. I just heard criticism of a teacher whose students complained that all he did was talk about "the geranium." They hated him. The kids could see through that too. I think the good teachers know or will work to find alternative ways of teaching the same thing. They have a collection of strategies and not just one way to do things. I think those are some of their characteristics.

One of the things that I see in special education generally, not just in regard to African Americans specifically, is that we're beginning to lose our history. People are forgetting why we've done certain things or why certain things developed. And so they're reinventing some of these old things that didn't work before, because they're not going back and reading the history. So I would want teachers and administrators to know and teach our history.

HBB: How should the parents and community be involved in the schooling of these learners?

Diggs: You know and I know that the imprint of the family is very strong. Therefore, teachers and other professionals should do all in their power to establish effective communication with the families of all children enrolled in the classroom. All administrators should make sure that parents are included in all aspects of the programming process and ensure participation in training programs designed to support children in the learning process in the home. A lot of learning takes place in the home. Therefore, the home should be the place where there is a continuation of the experiences of the regular and special education classroom setting. In working with the parents, I believe that programs should be developed to use them as aides in the classroom. They can do a lot to help. There is one school here in Norfolk where the Parent/Teacher Association and the administrators and teachers of the school are working very closely together. Parents are out in the classrooms every day. Schools should offer adult education, early childhood care, and health and social services along with an innovative curriculum. Any teacher should be aware when some type of innovation is necessary to enhance the learning process so that the children at all levels will have an opportunity in that classroom. Parents of African American learners need a high level of support in order to assist their children in developmental and learning activities. This is true regardless of the child's intellectual or age level. It has always been my belief that a good teacher is going to pull the potential from the child. Another thing is that educational policymakers should provide assistance and options that parents can understand and that are nondiscriminatory in regard to race or economics.

Wilderson: Involving parents would help them to become more effective in the education of their own children and others. These teachers could form parent groups that help their children with their homework. Groups of parents who are well educated could be formed across grades to help with the overall educational program. Teachers need to be prepared in group organization and group process so that they can facilitate groups. They need to know . . . group dynamics. Teachers and administrators know some of this content, but they don't know enough. What is happening in the schools now is that they expect children themselves to break the cycle of alienation between the school and the home that has passed from generation to generation. That is not going to happen by itself. There is going to have to be a concerted effort to break the cycle. The teachers and administrators have to disrupt that hostility felt by many parents and help them to get organized.

Hurley: You have to learn how to deal with parents and talk to parents. If you work in some communities of a school system that are mostly black, too many parents never show up. They can't get parents to come in for an IEP

meeting. Even when teachers are willing to have it before school or after school, it doesn't matter. They just don't show up. They're sitting at home doing absolutely nothing, and they won't put on a dress and come to school. Excuse after excuse after excuse. And then there are others who say, "Okay, I'll be right down," and never show up. It is very frustrating. There's something missing, and I don't know what it is. But we must find a way to reach them.

HBB: What impact do you expect the flow of federal funds through the state education agency and out through block grants to have on the African American exceptional learner?

Wilderson: Block grants will have an adverse effect on African American exceptional learners. I say that because I don't think that many states will take it upon themselves to advocate for special education. Few states have people who will go out on a limb for these learners. The states will need to have lots of monitoring for a while to ensure that the funds will be used for the intended purposes. On another level, however, I think that block grants are inevitable. They are coming!

I think that we are going to have to do a better job of aligning ourselves with those agencies that have some involvement in serving this population such as corrections, health services, et cetera.

Diggs: That is an interesting question. With the cutting of funds for education, it is my opinion that, unless there is careful planning and monitoring, not much of this money will trickle down to exceptional learners. The citizens need to know what is going on regarding enactment and implementation of these laws. That's what troubles me. Many of them don't even subscribe to the newspapers. I know you can't believe every bit of news that you hear, but at least it should make them alert to the issues. I think that ministers and community leaders ought to aggressively address this issue. We must all watch the planning and how these funds are going to be monitored.

Hurley: Well, I think it would impact them the same way that it will impact all of the exceptional learners. That is, that the money that was originally going for that purpose will no longer flow that way. Some of it will be diverted. The feds do two things when they block grant. First, they reduce the total amount of money and second, they reduce or eliminate some of the restrictions. And when they do that, it really depends upon how the money gets to the school. And when it gets to the school, program support depends on that school's principal.

HBB: What kinds of collaboration or linkages do special educators need to establish with non-special-education professional groups or individuals, for that matter, to try to cultivate or enhance what works for African American exceptional learners?

Hurley: I think we need to start going to regular education conferences, not just special education conferences. Those of us who think we know a lot about teaching reading and mathematics should go to a regular education reading conference or mathematics conference. We will find out that there are people there who know a lot, and they will find out that we know a lot too. It will help both ways. A lot of special educators already belong to many other groups, but there are also a lot of us that don't belong to anything. I think that, if not nationally, at least locally, we can become a lot more involved with these other professional groups. At one time, the larger professional organizations like the NEA [National Education Association] and the AFT [American Federation of Teachers] served that purpose, but since they've become unions in some places, they no longer serve that purpose.

There are professional issues that just cut across everybody and apply to those of us in special education who are working with exceptional learners or with African American exceptional learners. We just don't know it, though, because we are not out there listening to them. I remember listening to a TV program and the black males were saying that it really bothers them when they are walking down the street and the white females are locking up their cars. Well, I happened to be in a group of black females, and they said it's not only the white women who do that. This is an example

of selective perception. It happens when we only talk to ourselves.

Diggs: There have been and still are effective programs that have brought about development of collaboration or linkages between special and nonspecial educators. Through workshops, seminars, et cetera, some schools have obtained maximum results by sharing their expertise and experience through intern faculty visitation and exchanging locally developed instructional materials. At Norfolk State University, a 6-year Education Professions Development Act project involving regular classroom teachers brought about excellent collaboration and linkages among special education and non-special-education teachers in the Tidewater area. Similar projects have been conducted since then at that university and at others as well.

Wilderson: Every teacher education institution should give a lot more attention to the preparation of regular education teachers to teach special education. If regular educators are not better prepared—given more skills—they are simply going to move more students out of the regular classroom. So if the regular educators and special educators are going to be able to work more effectively together, the former group must have better training in understanding and dealing with children who have special needs. The Council for Exceptional Children is a major professional organization addressing students with special needs. It has recently initiated, with other professional organizations, a joint study of schools that maintain inclusive environments for learners. So the model is there for more effective cooperation and collaboration. There needs to be more cooperation between mainstream teacher education organizations and those serving special populations.

HBB: Now please enumerate and comment upon what are, in your estimation, the great issues that our nation faces in trying to respond to African American learners if you have not touched on these already.

Diggs: In my estimation, the three greatest issues the United States faces in education of African American exceptional learners as the 21st century approaches are, first of all, adequate funding for all programs of education including special education service delivery for this population. Secondly, ensuring that the state, local, and federal governments are designing programs to bring about the admission of African American learners to full membership in our society. We get excited because we have gained a few privileges and can go some places we could not go before, but discrimination is subtle and many times African American learners and also those of other ethnic groups don't know what's taking place. I am consistently disturbed when I either read about or observe that the type of learning opportunities that these individuals should have available are denied them. We are not full members of our society. What's happening to affirmative action? Now who will need affirmative action any more than African American exceptional learners?

Thirdly, all African American learners have a right to be respected and cherished. Therefore further change is needed relative to attitudes of professionals who provide social and rehabilitative services to African American exceptional learners. They need to understand how racism is manifested in discrimination in housing, education, employment, and other vital areas—the antithethis of the concepts of equal opportunity.

Wilderson: Schools that serve African American exceptional learners should measure their own success by the extent to which their students learn. In other words, those schools should show that their identification and selection of teachers and administrators are tied up in the success of their children. And children should not be seen as failures. If they do not do well, it is the school that fails, the system that fails, not the children. I would like to see schools in the next century take on that responsibility. Every teacher should believe that "my own concept of who I am is based upon my ability to work with the population that I have chosen to serve." Secondly, I think that our country must resolve the funding issue. Presently, funding is based on geographical jurisdiction. Geography is differentiated, and funding along these lines will by definition be at variance. If we do not address this economic issue, we are going to have a lot more tension.

Hurley: I think one big issue is resegregation of our society. Being old enough to have lived when it was very much segregated, I have seen it open up, and now it's going back. And people are saying it's okay. I guess the part of that which really bothers me more than anything else is that they are African Americans. I can't get used to it. I feel that we can maintain . . . our heritage, our culture, and everything else without having a segregated society. The Italians and Germans have maintained theirs. Other ethnic groups manage, and they're not segregating themselves except in certain activities. But somehow we haven't been able to do that ourselves. It might not be all our fault that that's happening either, because there are other people out there who don't like us too much. We have to face that reality, but we cannot let that reality cripple us. So I think that's one of the issues that we're going to have to face and deal with more and more, because the courts are beginning to back off of desegregation. In fact, that may have been a mistake to begin with. We lost something in the South when separate schools closed down, and we haven't recaptured it yet.

Our perspective needs to be broadened and not kept narrow. We have to put it in a bigger picture. I have a problem with it if we talk about strategies for African American exceptional learners, because I don't think there's a law that says "here are the techniques for African American learners and here's one for the Hispanic learners and here's one for the Asians." I don't think so. I think that there are good educational techniques that have to be adapted given the background of the individual, and you know in the African American community backgrounds are probably as varied as they are between white and black. The decision about who teaches in any particular school should be based upon who's the better teacher. That would be my hope, but I see the resegregation of the schools happening. The Atlanta school system is 95% to 96% African American now. There's not much desegregation in this system. And part of the reason is that everybody's "flown." We've gone from a school system of over 100,000 down to about 59,000. The flight was not just white flight; it also was middle-class African American flight. It's just as important.

HBB: So, what have we learned from history or what ought we have learned? What final comments do you wish to offer?

Hurley: I just wanted to mention one other thing that concerns me about the future, and that is the increase in marginal students correlated with teenage unmarried pregnancy. And once again I don't want to say that every child who's a product of a teenage mother is going to have a problem or be a problem. But if we look at the statistics, as that incidence has increased our other school problems have increased. And that concerns me.

Diggs: While it is true that exceptional learners who are members of racial and ethnic minorities suffer the same indignities as other exceptional learners, there are special and unique problems that we must be concerned about. The problems are centered around individuals, what individuals face and what they have faced because of the lack of awareness of cultural differences. But we fail to seize and manage all of this. I reiterate that prejudice and racial discrimination continue to exclude a great number of African American exceptional learners from full participation. More can be done about this. A quick look at some phases of the history of African Americans will reveal a pattern of events that has pervaded, through the years, practically every phase of our lives. It's just out there. We've just got to do what we can to have people awaken to this. And we must reach back and bring others along with us. I'm hoping that the NAACP [National Association for the Advancement of Colored People] and other civil rights organizations will now get their act together. Historians tell us much about Africans brought to this country and how they were educated in civility. The slaves' self-respect was destroyed by slave brokers who set out to accomplish this through well-planned systematic and psychological methods—and physiological methods too. To destroy self-respect, these same methods were used to teach them to obey.

Wilderson: I think that what we have learned from history is that African American exceptional students can and do learn. They learn best when they are in the presence of teachers and administrators who have compassion. We have no reason for despair. All obstacles faced can be removed, all challenges can be met!

Using Bilingual Literature with Students Who Have Severe Disabilities

CANDACE CLARK

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Monterey County, California, covers an area of roughly 3,500 square miles and has 27 school districts. This county has high numbers of students from culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) backgrounds. Although bilingual services do exist in the mainstream of most districts, more can be done to meet the needs of students with severe disabilities who come from CLD homes where a language other than English is spoken. The five program specialists of the Monterey County Special Education Local Plan Area (SELPA) devote a major portion of their time to staff development, training well over 2,000 local special education staff in a normal academic year.

The staff members responsible for students with severe disabilities share a serious commitment to designing appropriate instruction and using assessment practices for these very special students. They have been trained in the Exito Program (Baca & de Valenzuela, 1995) in order to hone their skills in reducing appropriate referrals of students from CLD backgrounds to special education programs, as well as pioneering new instructional practices. They also attended training in cultural issues, second language acquisition, informal assessment, and issues concerning the use of standardized assessment instruments currently employed by many assessors. In addition, staff members attended an inservice institute on Improving Services for Language Minority Students with Disabilities. Although the project was geared toward students with learning disabilities, we hoped to be able to adapt some of the materials for students with severe disabilities, who often have limited language abilities in both their native language and English. Information was provided on the characteristics of effective instruction as well as how to implement shared literature using whole-language techniques, set up and record story grammar charts, develop the literature units, adapt for diverse student groups, and encourage children to like books.

PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

We implemented the program in South Monterey County in five classes with a total enrollment of approximately 50 students, 50% of whom are from Spanish-speaking homes. Although none of the teachers is bilingual, the instructional assistants are native Spanish speakers. These assistants are also well versed in good teaching practices and often conduct their own student groups in reading and math. The students, who range from preschool to age 13, have a wide range of ability (moderate to profound retardation) and disability (severe delay of language). Some students have little recognizable speech, while others can hold nearly normal conversations but have very low levels of academic skills. We went into the venture with the understanding that our primary objective was not necessarily to teach reading (although reading did occur), but to develop language skills and an appreciation of literature.

So, with newfound knowledge in hand, the staff began to develop the bilingual literature units. The first thing we did was to decide which literature units we wanted to develop. Then we pulled together all of the resources we

already had to see which ones we had a head start on and which ones we still needed to buy books for. The cooperation of the staff was tremendous. Every staff member contributed books from his or her own personal library. We were able to supply over half of the English-language books needed to make 12 different units. We then purchased as many of the same books in Spanish as we were able to find. This is probably one of the hardest things to do because it is difficult to find Spanish literature books of good quality. We had the most success with Dr. Seuss and Eric Carle. We are located in a small rural area and are lucky to have a number of private benefactors who give us money each year to buy extra materials for the classes. The staff members contributed some of their hard-earned classroom money to purchase the books we needed to round out the units. We ended up with almost every unit having at least 10 books and most having more than 10.

The idea of the literature units is to read and re-read the stories in the unit over a 1-month period. We also pooled our resources to supply ideas (with samples) for extension activities such as art, music, make-your-own books, puppets, videotapes, puzzles, and flannel board materials to supplement the books in each unit. We knew that if everything needed to present the unit was supplied, the staff would be more likely to use the materials. All of the materials for each unit went into a large canvas shopping bag that included a list of the books in the unit, the books themselves, lesson plans that were purchased at a very reasonable cost from the University of Texas at Austin (Special Project in Bilingual Education), and a list of all supplemental materials and activities. A sign-up folder with the names of all the units and the months available for check-out was supplied to the instructional staff. We ended up with units on dogs, cats, pets, bears, cows, dinosaurs, plants, self-esteem, transportation, Dr. Seuss, Eric Carle, pattern books, and predictable books. As the units are used, staff members are now including any new supplemental materials and activities that have proven successful in the classroom. We spent approximately 2 months getting the units ready for use.

To implement the bilingual portion of the program, each teacher first modeled a lesson for the Spanish-speaking bilingual instructional assistant. Each class has its own unique needs, depending upon the age and functional abilities of the students. Some teachers only needed the assistant to read the story and then to do very simple discussion activities about the pictures in the story and get students to respond to requests such as, "Point to the . . . ." Other teachers have students who are learning to read using SRA's *Reading Mastery* program and wanted to incorporate some of the techniques used in that program, including the use of "rules." These teachers wanted the students to identify the author, tell the rule about the author ("The author is the person who wrote the story"), identify the title, and tell the rule about the title ("The title tells us what the story is about"). More detailed instruction followed about the story, including the sequence of events, main characters, and the type of story being read, such as circle stories ("It starts and ends in the same way") and stacking stories ("Things pile up and then fall down").

The instructional assistant's responsibility was to incorporate all of these things into the preview of the story in Spanish for students identified as having limited English proficiency or whose parents wanted their child to have the experience of the story in Spanish. Immediately after the instructional assistant read the story in Spanish, the students would join the whole class in reading and discussing the story in English, making sure to emphasize the same things that were emphasized in the Spanish reading.

SUCCESSFUL OUTCOMES

The most successful activity involved the use of language or story grammar charts. To make their use more meaningful for our students, the charts were used to record responses from the students as we re-read stories and held our discussions about what we saw in the books. We always paired a picture of a character in the story with the actual chart. Both were displayed on classroom bulletin boards. Most of the charts had descriptive lists of words instead of the usual *who*, *what*, *where*, *when*, and *how*.

An example of one of the most successful language charts involved the stories "The Jacket I Wear in the Snow" and "The Dress I Wear to the Party." Full-sized, laminated paper

dolls were made to represent the two characters in the stories. All of the pieces of clothing used in the stories were drawn on paper, colored to match the clothing in the stories, and then laminated. Pieces of Velcro were attached to the clothing and the dolls. We discussed with the students the different names of the clothing that the characters wore and made flashcards with the names of each piece. In the initial reading, the students were expected just to listen until the story was finished. The students were then each given a piece of clothing from the story. As the story was re-read, students "dressed" the dolls using the Velcro strips and then "undressed" them as the clothing was removed in the story. Students were then directed to place the clothing on the flannel board. They were each given a flashcard with the clothing name on it and told what it said. They then had to match up the word with the clothing, and, on later trials, to match the clothing with the word. During our morning journal activity, we would have the students dictate to us something about the clothing they were wearing for the day, and we would write it in the journals for them. They would then either trace the word or write the word from the model and share their little stories with the rest of the class. The students began to use language like never before! They couldn't wait until "story time," and whenever they had a few minutes of free time, they would dress the dolls and tell each other the names of the clothes, and talk about which piece of clothing came next, and they would end up sequencing the story on their own. Re-telling the story in sequence is something that only a few of our students were able to do, even when prompted. This apparent generalization of story sequencing is a major step forward.

Another successful language chart was developed for the unit on transportation. We drew all of the different types of vehicles and posted them on the bulletin board along with all the types of surface that one would find them on (road, water, etc.). We started our journals for the month with the phrase, "Let's talk about vehicles." We cut out the letters for the rule for vehicles, "A vehicle is made to take you places." After reading a book about a certain vehicle, we would hold our discussions and write the descriptor words about the story on the vehicle previously posted on the bulletin board. As the students developed their journals for the month, we had them tell us about vehicles they had ridden or would like to ride in. We would locate that vehicle on the bulletin board, talk about the title of that specific book, read the descriptor words for that vehicle, and use the words to complete their journal entry for the day.

CONCLUSION

The bilingual literature units have been a major success for most of our students. In the past it has been difficult to encourage an interest in books in classes for students with extremely limited mental capacities. We will certainly continue to use the literature units with these children in the hope that we will see even more of an interest in literature in the future. We have also had success implementing the units with older students with profound disabilities. Even though these students have very limited verbal skills, they have demonstrated their interest with their smiles and obvious interest in the books. They often grab the teacher to pull her over to the area where the books are kept and point to the books. The language charts in this class are very simple, usually with a picture from the book and just the title. The success in this class gives us hope for the younger children. We are now in the process of developing the next four units, which will include farm animals, wild animals, circle stories, and stacking stories. The next goal is to develop units for our high school programs based on books that contain chapters and text, rather than just pictures.

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Through Navajo Eyes: Curriculum Guidelines from a Teacher's Perspective

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"To walk in beauty" is a traditional saying of the Navajo people to communicate thankfulness or gratitude.

Teacher training programs have at their foundation a focus upon curriculum content, but teachers in the 1990s must give attention to culture as well (DEC Task Force on Recommended Practices, 1993; Hanson, 1992; Lynch, 1992; Lynch & Hanson, 1992). One of the perspectives that requires representation in the curriculum in today's classroom is that of the Native American. Native Americans are unique among ethnic and multicultural groups as our only native peoples. Critical research on Native American children is limited or unavailable (Garcia Coll, 1990; McLloyd, 1990). Of the 1.4 million Native Americans, 46% live on or near identified Indian areas such as reservations (U.S. Department of Education, 1987). Native Americans are the only ethnic group in the United States with a significant percentage of its population residing in rural areas (O'Connell, 1987).

The school-age population of Native Americans numbers between 300,000 and 400,000; this number is expected to increase over the next decade (U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1990). Of these children, 85% to 90% are now educated in public schools, with approximately 10% receiving their education in Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) schools (U.S. Department of the Interior, 1988). Successful educational efforts on behalf of Native American students are challenged by the constantly changing political and economic environment, as well as changing mores (i.e., traditional beliefs and cultural and social practices).

Monument Valley High School (MVHS) is part of the public school system within the Navajo reservation. The school is located in southeastern Utah in the San Juan District. Approximately 280 students in grades 7 through 12 attend the school, and 98% of these students are Navajo. MVHS is located in an isolated area with few social activities for students and community members. The nearest movie theater is 80 miles away; the nearest roller rink, 180 miles; and the nearest mall, 180 miles. The community organization consists of one major business project including a motel, trading post, gas station, laundromat, and campground; a Seventh Day Adventist Hospital and mission; a division of the Navajo government referred to as the *Oljato Chapter*; and the high school. Social service assistance is provided by agencies in Blanding, 80 miles from the district, and Kayenta, Arizona, 25 miles distant.

CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE CURRICULUM—THE BEAUTY WAY MODEL

The Beauty Way curriculum model is designed to meet the needs of Navajo youth in the San Juan public school district, including those

enrolled in programming for students with disabilities and/or gifts. The model has at its foundation seven principles that guide the education of the youth in the schools:

1. Being a Navajo in itself is not a problem.
2. Growing up and going to school in a non-Indian environment and society is frequently a problem.
3. Navajo children grow up experiencing at least two very different views of the world they live in.
4. Teachers and other school personnel are oblivious to the fact that Native American students undergo traumatic cultural conflicts while going to school.
5. The school must address the traditional issues of the Navajo family.
6. There is a lack of a relevant curriculum in schools; the current curriculum does not emphasize what the child already knows.
7. Educators must carefully view Native American students and their educational process from a bilingual and multicultural perspective.

The Beauty Way model recognizes that, unless the child has a sense of empowerment and ownership in the education process, the child may be unmotivated to succeed academically and even the best organized and most positively planned curriculum will be destined to fail. Community members may not place their trust in the educational establishment when they feel that the curriculum is one sided, with the traditional knowledge being influenced by non-Native-American perspectives. The school must include the parents, family members, and the community in decisions involving the content of classroom instruction. This inclusiveness is inherent in the Beauty Way model. The following is a discussion of each of the seven principles and corresponding teaching implications.

Being a Navajo in Itself Is Not a Problem

Our elders were born into a world where there was no formal education; education lacked relevance in the Navajo world. Traditionally, the environment was the principle classroom, and the student learned through observation and imitation, trial and error, and oral tradition. Various family members assumed responsibility for instructing the young. The young were taught what they would need to know in order to be productive members of the tribal society. This educational system of rules and taboos, songs and other religious instructions, physical conditioning, hunting and military skills, care of the fields and livestock, accepted behaviors, and responsibilities to the social group comprised what might be called the traditional Navajo "curriculum." This traditional process of education was sound, balanced, and made sense in a culture that was self-contained, with little need for outside contact.

Teaching Implications. In the classroom the elders must work with students and teachers in order to link the past to the present.

Growing Up and Going to School in a Non-Indian Environment and Society Is Frequently a Problem

The first 5 years of a Navajo child's life are pleasant. The child has grown in a one-room house, familiar with everything, and has stood tall in assuming responsibility. The child knows the days of the week, the seasons, and the weather they bring, and has done babysitting, sheepherding, and many other daily chores. Suddenly plunged into a totally unfamiliar environment, the child is unprepared for the structure of the classroom. The child may have the desire to learn, but as an unfamiliar environment, the school soon begins to eat away at his or her sense of freedom, independence, and pride. The life that once had balance is now perceived as a standard of living that is not acceptable to the dominant culture. The child is no longer empowered.

Teaching Implications. The school must incorporate routines that are familiar to the student across content areas.

Navajo Children Grow Up Experiencing at Least Two Very Different Views of the World They Live In

For too long the schools have forced the Native American child to accept only the dominant culture. This idea has hindered the child's self-

acceptance; consequently, the child cannot advance to develop strong beliefs.

Teaching Implications. The school must support students' establishment of self-identity, pride in being Native American, and pride in being Navajo.

Teachers and Other School Personnel Are Oblivious to the Fact That Native American Students Undergo Traumatic Cultural Conflicts While Going to School

In the past, the actions of teachers and school personnel made school unattractive to students and their families. It appeared that the schools either did not know about Navajo culture or deliberately did not include cultural considerations in their teaching. Instead teachers taught by the standards put forth for Anglo children.

Teaching Implications. Effective educators must be knowledgeable of the cultural and linguistic issues that are the cornerstones of a student's identity. Appropriately educated teachers recognize the uniqueness of the Native American child's life and provide the child experiences that move him or her from the known to the unknown. In this way the student's values and standards are reinforced and remain intact, while his or her experiential knowledge about unfamiliar subjects is expanded.

The School Must Address the Traditional Issues of the Navajo Family

As the influence of non-Native-American culture increases, so does the dropout rate for Native American students during the junior high and high school years. The school dropout rate among Native Americans is still the highest in the nation, due to numerous factors. These include the demands of parenting, pregnancy, fathering a child, drugs and alcohol, lack of family encouragement, dislike of teacher and/or administration, travel time to school, and a lack of goals that embrace higher education.

Teaching Implications. The school system must integrate the traditional values of the family into classroom routines, while recognizing the diverse demands that confront the Navajo student of today.

There Is a Lack of a Relevant Curriculum in Schools; the Current Curriculum Does Not Emphasize What the Child Already Knows

If experiences unknown to the student are continually stressed in the classroom and what is familiar to the child is ignored by insensitive educators (e.g., the child's language and culture), a poor self-image may evolve.

Teaching Implications. The child should be given the opportunity to be receptive and expressive in his or her own language in the classroom. If this is done, the child will continue to do well in developing communication skills.

Educators Must Carefully View Native American Students and Their Educational Process from a Bilingual and Multicultural Perspective

The 5-year-old Navajo child entering school is proficient in his or her own language; however, often by the intermediate grades the child's achievement level has begun to deteriorate.

Teaching Implications. This can be avoided if holistic strategies are implemented across *all* classrooms. The strategies must be student driven, using the student's home language. Whole language, literature, and cooperative learning should be used to improve academic skills in the child's native language as well as in English.

CURRICULUM SAMPLE

When implementing the Beauty Way model in the classroom, teachers can use a known object such as a Navajo basket as the focus to connect the known with the unknown. A thematic unit built around the basket begins with the sharing of the traditional symbolisms of the basket by an elder, parent, or community member as described in the following paragraph.

A Navajo basket has an outlet like a door, which is always placed to the east. The markings on the inside represent the sacred moun-

tains that surround the Navajo reservation. There are six mountains, four of which are major ones: Blanca Peak to the east, Mt. Taylor to the south, San Francisco Peaks to the west, and the La Plata to the north. These represent the four cardinal directions. To the east side of the basket, the standards for life are placed. Beliefs, self-discipline, and the values that provide standards of behavior and give meaning to life develop throughout childhood. To the south of the basket, earning a living is placed. To the west, reciprocity for all creation is placed. In this area of learning, clan and family cohesiveness are emphasized by the parent. To the north side of the basket, hope and respect for nature are placed. This represents a time for rest and rejuvenation.

CLASSROOM APPLICATIONS

As the elders pass their wisdom and knowledge of history through the oral tradition, students learn the artful balance of finding similarities and appreciating differences. This cultural competence is not only evident in the Navajo language and traditions, but also extends to an understanding of each individual's background and culture. Children are encouraged to be creative thinkers, have spiritual strength, make good decisions, and develop values. Emphasis should be placed on providing a structured and facilitative environment through which students can become self-directed. Learning must come from within the individual through social and individual contexts, with the student encouraged to find the discipline to take learning seriously. Cooperative learning groups seem to work best, coupled with individual learning time.

Instruction regarding work issues should include the ethical, vocational, social and environmental dimensions. The student must think and plan to achieve the goals of self-sufficiency and dignity. Goal setting, self-reliance, physical stamina, and education are emphasized. These can be reinforced through the use of real-life materials that enhance learning by reaching students with varying learning styles. This supports the students' transition from school to real life.

Emotional ties and relationships associated with the family, extended family, community, the nation as a whole, and the natural environment are encompassed in the curriculum. However, the teacher should not assume that the student's cultural identity is the same as that of his or her parents. The teacher should not have any preconceived ideas about a particular student and family unless those ideas have already been directly communicated by the student or family. Therefore, an open and sensitive approach must be taken when obtaining knowledge of the culture of the group to which the student belongs.

CONCLUSION

We must start the cycle of openness and sensitivity in teacher, student, and family partnerships by addressing the curricula used in our classrooms. As the themes manifested in the seven guiding principles of the Beauty Way model show, Native American people may have experiences and knowledge that are different from those of the larger culture. Therefore, it is important for teachers to use cultural information and materials that are familiar to Native American students when presenting concepts and evaluating understanding.

In the curriculum, teachers should use manipulative approaches whenever possible, remembering that not all students' answers will agree with the teacher's answer. When students' answers differ, teachers should ask them how they arrived at their answer; the answer may be valid from the student's perspective. Teachers should allow students a variety of ways to communicate, particularly if English is not their first language. When working in a Native American language, it is important to make sure the problems are realistic and be aware that when translating a problem from English into the Native language the end result may be incomprehensible.

Although there are varying barriers to the success of Navajo students, curricula must be responsive to *all* students, from those who are gifted and talented to children with special needs. Heritage and culture run deep. Differences in cultural situations and circumstances may create barriers to positive interactions and communication. The Beauty Way curriculum model attempts to provide a cultur-

ally responsive framework to meet the unique needs of Native American children and youth, in particular Navajo students from the San Juan District.

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Using Instructional Games for Cultural Exploration: Exploring African Cultures

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Many educators today are cognizant of the importance of understanding and accepting cultural diversity. However, all too often teachers continue to seek ways to impart appropriate content and increase positive attitudes about varied ethnic groups and their cultures. Many teachers would welcome specific techniques and tools to assist them in providing a learning environment that develops cultural competence among students. Several educators (Banks, 1981; Reissman, 1994; Seelye, 1994) have offered the rationale and specific strategies for infusion of such content into the curriculum. Byrd (1995) provides a schema for designing activities to teach specific content and concepts.

One motivational tool is the use of a game format. Students tend to enjoy such activities while being exposed to and mastering valuable content. Games that are designed for more than one player at a time also afford an opportunity for cooperative learning. "Exploring African Cultures" is a teacher-made game that introduces students to the history and culture of some African peoples. In addition to the primary focus of understanding the cultures, the game sharpens the students' skills in other areas. The learners must read information as well as use their memory. Moreover, to play the game effectively, students need adequate information processing and oral expression skills. Recall of information, the basic element of the learning process, is limited among many learners with disabilities. This game uses a teach–test format that rewards memory. The player first learns facts, then must recall those facts to respond during the game.

GAME BOARD AND MATERIALS

The game board is a large board with four different colored squares around the perimeter. Each color has a corresponding Home Square for starting and completing the game. In the board's center is a map of Africa surrounded by pictures of various African peoples and artifacts representative of the continent (see Figure 1). Additional materials required for the game include a set of 100 game cards and dice. Side one of the game cards is divided into upper and lower halves. The upper half contains a fact; on the lower half is the answer to a question about the fact. Written at the bottom of side two is the question corresponding to the fact on side one. Disks of colors corresponding to the Home Squares serve as markers.

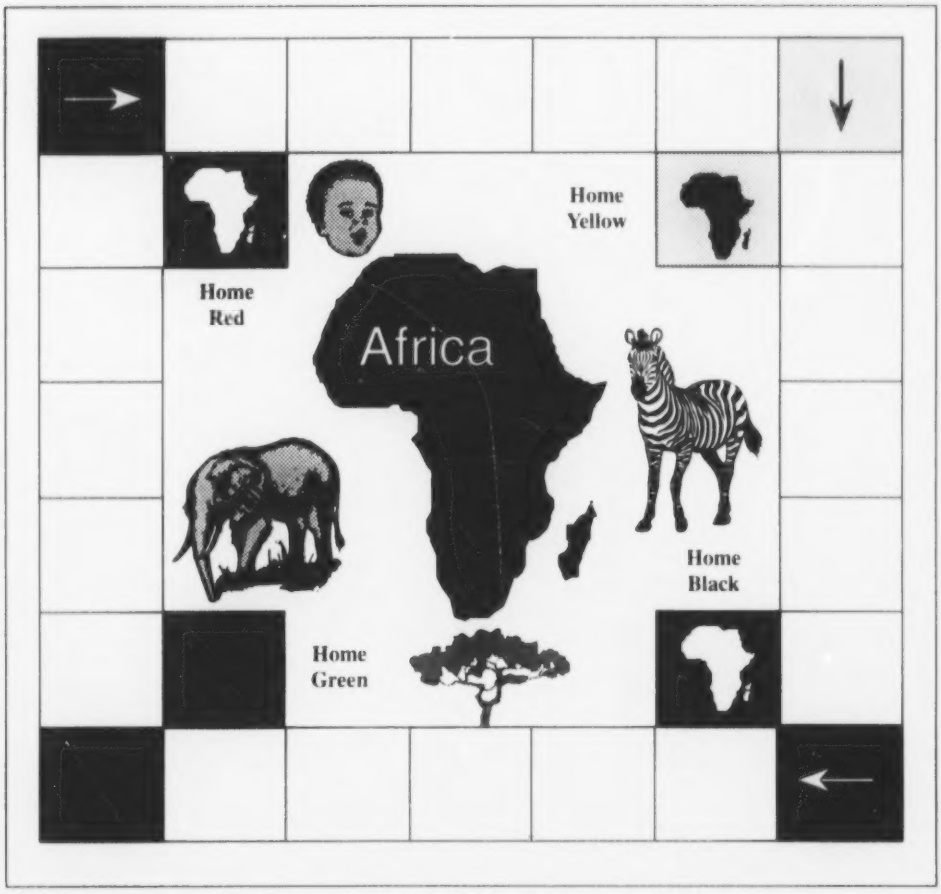
OBJECTIVE

The objective of "Exploring African Cultures" is to learn about different aspects of various cultures, such as foods, holidays, dress, religion, music, art, and history. The game requires each player to answer questions, with the goal being to be the first to reach the Home Square.

RULES

1. Two to four students may play at one time.
2. Each player chooses a Home Square and corresponding colored marker.
3. Each player rolls the dice to decide who starts the game. The player with the highest number begins the game.

FIGURE 1



4. The cards are placed on the gameboard with side one (fact/answer) face up. Each player in turn draws a card and reads the fact aloud, then places the card off to the side for later use in the game. After all facts have been read, the cards are reshuffled, piled into a deck, and placed back onto the gameboard. The players are now ready to begin play with the question side face up.
5. Each player in turn picks a card from the deck, reads the question aloud, and answers it. After answering, the player turns the card over to side one to check the answer. After each correct answer, the player rolls the dice and moves forward the amount of spaces indicated on the dice. The player moves in the direction of the arrows printed on the game board, starting at his or her Home Square. If an incorrect answer is given, the player may not advance. *Note:* A player must wait for the next turn before attempting to answer another question.
6. The game continues until each player reaches his or her pathway Home.
7. The first player to reach Home wins.

ADAPTATIONS AND EXTENSION OF GAME

Adaptations of this game may be made for students at different reading and cognitive levels. For example, all cards may be read aloud to a group of players who lack adequate reading ability. Additionally, a deck of cards may be developed for learners at different cognitive levels (e.g., primary, lower elementary, and upper elementary). Or only a portion of the cards may be used for a game.

This same game concept can be extended for use in studying other cultures, using similar questions. For example, the author of this article has also developed "Exploring Japanese Culture."

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